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HINDUSTAN YEAR-BOOK

1961

editor

S. C. SARKAR

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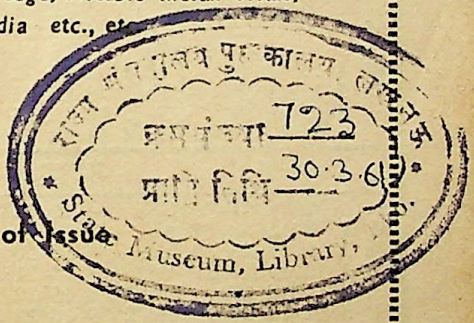
S. C. SARKAR

Author of Book of General Knowledge, Notable Indian Trials, Constitution of India etc., etc.



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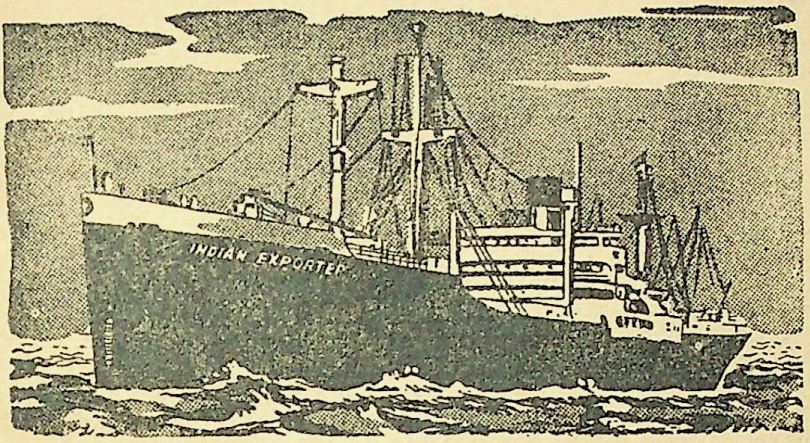

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Puri HOTEL

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The undulations of the hills along the blue skyline, the wild beauties of Nature at every corner of the valley, the Hundru falls, the charming climate—Ranchi is famous for these and no less for the exquisite cuisine and comfort provided by the South Eastern Railway Hotel

EXCELLENT CUISINE AND HOMELY COMFORT AT S. E. RAILWAY HOTELS

South Eastern Railway

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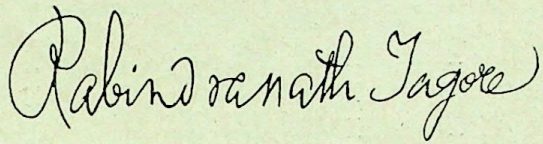

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INDIA AT A GLANCE

AREA AND POPULATION

India covers an area of 12,59,797 square miles. It is the seventh largest country in the world. It extends about 2,000 miles from north to south and about 1,850 miles from east to west. Her land frontier stretches over 9,945 miles and her coast-line runs to 3,500 miles. Its triangular peninsula juts into the Indian Ocean and is bounded on the south-west by the Arabian Sea and on the south-east by the Bay of Bengal. India is bordered on the north-west by West Pakistan and on the north-east by China, Burma, East Pakistan, Nepal and Tibet. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands in the Bay of Bengal and the Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands in the Arabian Sea are parts of India.

India lies to the north of equator. From south to north it stretches from 8° north latitude to 37° north latitude, with the Tropic of Cancer cutting it into two halves. And from west to east, it stretches about 60° east latitude to 97° east latitude.

India is the world's second most populous country. According to the 1951 census, the population of India is 35,68,79,394. The density of the population of India is 287 per square mile. The number of persons in 1951 professing different religions in India are ; Hindus 3,032 lakhs, Muslims 3,54 lakhs, Christians 82 lakhs, Sikhs 62 lakhs, Jains 16 lakhs, Buddhists 2 lakhs, Zoroastrians 1 lakh ; other religions (tribal) 17 lakhs, and other religions (non-tribal) 1 lakh. Regarding rural and urban population, only 619 crores or 17.3 per cent live in cities and towns, while the remaining 29.50 crores or 82.7 per cent live in villages. There are 3,018 towns and 5,58,088 villages in the country. Between 1941 and 1951, births had occured at an average rate of 40 per thousand per annum, death at an average rate of 27 per thousand per annum and the natural increase of population at an average rate of 13 per thousand per annum.

PHYSICAL DIVISION

India can be divided into *three natural divisions.*

1. The mountain ranges i.e. *the Himalayas.*
2. *The Indo-gangetic Plain.*
3. *The Deccan or Peninsula proper.*

(1) The *Himalayan region* extends across the northern border from Kashmir to the Burma frontier. The Himalayas comprise a system of stupendous fold-mountain ranges, some of them the loftiest in the world, extending in the shape of a scimitar with its edge facing southward. This region runs for 1,500 miles from the eastern extremity of Assam to the western limits of Kashmir with a breadth varying from 150 to 200 miles. (2) South of the mountains is the *Indo-gangetic Plain.* It is about 1,850 miles long, east to west and from 150 to 200 miles broad. The Plain is broken by intermittent-

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low-lying mountain ranges and are watered by India's three main rivers—the Ganges, the Brahmaputra and the Jamuna—which flow southward from the Himalayas to the Bay of Bengal. (3) The *Deccan or Peninsula proper* is a table-land and lies within the tropics. It is bounded on the three sides by mountains—on the north by the Vindhya and Satpura ranges, on the west by the Western Ghats, on the east by the Eastern Ghats. Two coastal strips of flat land exist on the outer side of both Western and Eastern Ghats—the western coastal strip is known as the Konkan in the north and Malabar in the south; the eastern coastal strip is known as Coromondal Coast. This peninsular region is traversed by the rivers Narmada and Tapti which flow into Arabian Sea, and Mahanadi Godavari, Krishna and Kaveri which flow into Bay of Bengal.

CLIMATE

Lying largely within the tropics and with the great Asiatic continent to the north and the vast expanse of the Indian Ocean to the south, the climate of India is essentially the tropical monsoon type. The whole country experiences three well-marked and well-defined periods—the cool, the hot and the rainy seasons. The cool months are November, December and January and the early part of February. The weather is then pleasant, dry and cool. The hot season which follows belongs, at any rate officially, to March. From this time until the middle of June there is a continual rise of temperature which is experienced with greatest severity in the centre and the north. The monsoon or rainy season usually begins about the middle of June. The rainy season lasts for about three months and during that period rain is generally experienced all over the country. At one place (Cherrapunji) the average rainfall for the year is 426 inches.

The climatic regions of India according to rainfall, are as follows —(1) regions with more than 80 inches of annual rainfall, such as the West Coast, Bengal and Assas, (2) regions with 40 to 80 inches of rainfall such as the north-east plateau and the middle Ganges valley, (3) regions with 20 to 40 inches of rainfall, such as Madras, southern and north-western Deccan and the upper Ganges Plain. To these may be added the Himalayan regions with very heavy rainfall.

SOIL OF INDIA

About 35 per cent of the land area is fertile, well-watered and under cultivation. 20 to 25 per cent is left fallow or is waste land, which can be brought under cultivation. Forests cover some 22.1 per cent of the land area. The remainder consists of deserts, semi-deserts and mountain ranges.

Indian soil may be mainly classified under four different heads, namely, (1) *alluvial soil*, (2) *black soil*, (3) *red soil* and (4) *laterite soil*.

The alluvial soil is the most important soil and is formed by the silts brought by the rivers every year and deposited on their banks. It is very fertile and covers greater part of the northern India

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between the foot of the Himalayas and the northern slopes of the Vindhyas and extends in a narrow fringe round the coast-line of the peninsula. Territorially they occupy Punjab, Uttar-Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, parts of Assam and Orissa and also the coastal regions of Southern India. The whole of the Indo-Gangetic plain is comprised in this area.

Red soils cover the whole of Madras, Mysore and south-east Bombay, east of Hyderabad and Madhya Pradesh to Orissa and Chota Nagpur. Northwards the red soil extends into greater part of Santhal Parganas and the Birbhum district of West Bengal, the Mirzapur, Jhansi and Hamirpur districts of the Uttar Pradesh, the Baghelkhand States of Central India, the Aravalis and the eastern half of Rajasthan.

Black soil or black cotton soil is formed by the lava of volcanic eruptions and is very suitable for cotton cultivation. The black soil covers greater part of Bombay and Gujrat, western part of Madhya Pradesh, Madhya Bharat and Hyderabad and some parts of Madras State. Black cotton soil is exceedingly compact and tenacious out and sticky when wet. The water-holding capacity of this soil is good. Cotton, jawar, wheat, linseed and gram are cultivated in these areas and the soil is rich in iron and aluminium but very poor in organic matter and other plant nutrients.

Laterite soil is derived by the atmospheric weathering of several types of rocks under monsoon conditions of alternating dry and wet periods. This soil is found on the summits of the hills of the Deccan, Madhya Bharat, Madhya Pradesh and of the Rajmahal and Eastern Ghats and certain parts of Orissa, Bombay, Malabar and Assam.

LANGUAGES

According to the census of 1951, the total languages or dialects in India are 845 including 720 Indian languages spoken by less than a lakh persons each and 63 non-Indian languages. Some 32.4 crores or 91 per cent of the population speak one of 14 languages specified in the Constitution. This multiplicity of languages need not dismay any one, because only 12 are of major importance. Hindi, the national language, is spoken by the largest number of people. English is used in government notices and correspondence and is widely understood in government and business circles. The Constitution of India provides that English is to continue to be used for official purposes at least until several years, but eventually Hindi in Devnagri script is to become the official language of record.

RIVER SYSTEMS

Himalayan System—Broadly speaking, the rivers of India fall into two district categories, *i.e.*, the Himalayan System and the Deccan System.

The Indus, the Ganges and the Brahmaputra are the main rivers of the Himalayan System. Perennially fed by melting snow in the Himalayas and monsoon rains between June and September, they water one of the most thickly populated areas on earth. Most of

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the tributaries rise in the Himalayas and are, for a considerable length of their courses, mountain torrents.

(1) The three greater Himalayan systems are :—(*a*) *Indus* river with its three tributaries *Ravi, Beas* and *Sutlej*, waters the Punjab. The source of Indus is on the northern slope of Mount Kailas in Tibet. For the first 500 miles of its course, it flows through deep gorges in the Himalayas, after which it turns south-west and descends to the plains. Thereafter river flows south through Sindh and meets the Arabian sea. Free India possesses very little of the Indus basin. (*b*) *Ganges*—At a height of 13,000 ft. in the Himalayas near the glacier Gangotri is a small cave of ice, from which issues the river Ganges. Emerging from the icey cave as a small trickle, it gathers strength as it rushes down the mountain and by the time it escape from the Siwalik gorge near Hardwar to the plains, it is already a big river. Instead of flowing directly south, the river turns east in a great arc and flows across the States of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. During its easterly course, it collects the waters of Jamuna, Gumti, Garga, Sarda, Gandak, Sone and Kosi. Near Rajmahal hills in Bihar, the river swings south-east into West Bengal. Thereafter, it splits into several branches and meets the Bay of Bengal (*c*) *The Brahmaputra* has its source near lake Manasarowar in Western Tibet. Running due east for nearly 800 miles in Tibet under the name Tsangpo, it cuts due south into Indian territory. Joined by Dibang and Lohit, the united stream takes the name Brahmaputra. It rolls due west into a vast sheet of water through the narrow Assam valley, which is 500 miles long and 50 miles wide. Turning towards the south-west at Goalundo, it forges ahead to join the easternmost mouth of the Ganges—the Padma. Before the combined waters of the two fall into the Bay of Bengal, they are joined by several other rivers, the most important amongst them being Meghna in East Pakistan.

(2) *Rivers of the Deccan System*—Fed by the monsoon for four months, the rivers of Deccan are worthy of being called rivers only during that period. Most of the year, however, they are mere trickles in beds of stone and sand. The Deccan system falls under three categories—(1) east-flowing rivers, west-flowing rivers and those flow north and empty themselves into Gangetic river system. The three important east-flowing rivers are *Godavari, Krishna* and *Kaveri* which rise in the Western Ghats. They follow the slope of the plateau, cut deep into it and fall into the Bay of Bengal. The *Mahanadi* and *Damodar* are two other important east-flowing rivers. (2) The west-flowing rivers are *Sharavati, Netravaty, Cheliyar, Pennani* and *Periyar*, all of which rise in the Western Ghats and fall into the Arabian Sea. (3) North-flowing rivers gradually slope towards the north Indian plain, the most important of which are the *Chambal* which feeds the *Jamuna* and the *Sone* which join Ganges near Patna. But the two biggest rivers are *Narmada* and *Tapti*, which flow westward and fall into the Arabian Sea.

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PORTS

Scattered along her vast coastline, India has five major ports and over 200 minor posts of varying capacity. India has very natural harbours, because it is broken by very few inlets of the sea ; the sea round the eastern coast is very shallow and the shores are usually flat and sandy and as such the big ocean-going ships have to weigh anchor at some distance from the shore. Except Bombay, Okha and Cochin, all other ports in Western India coast are rocky and virtually inaccessible during the monsoon. The eastern coast of India is surf-bound and has no natural harbour, excepting Visakhapatnam. Calcutta is about 90 miles from the sea and the formation of sand banks in the Hooghly has made Calcutta a dangerous port.

Six 'major' ports of India are—Calcutta, Visakhapatnam, Madras, Cochin, Bombay, Kandla.

The principal ports of India are Bedi Bunder, Okha, Porbandar, Surat, Kandla, Bombay, Marmugao, Mangolore, Calicut, Cochin, Alleppey, Quilon, Tuticorin, Dhanushkodi, Negapatam, Karikal, Cudalore, Pondicherry, Madras, Masulipatam, Kakinada, Visakhapatnam, Calcutta. The number of ports notified as open for traffic on the whole coast of India under Indian Ports Act, 1908 is 226.

INDIAN RACES

India's 362 million people constitute a seventh of the human race. Her population, second only to that of China, is made up of many racial strains. Various groups entered India at one time or the other between the paleolithic and historical periods.

During the British period, the first official enumeration of the people of India was made by Sir Herbert Risley, which was an official pronouncement accepted very largely both in India and outside India, though it is now regarded as arbitrary classification based on insufficient data and immature science. Indian races were divided into seven broad groups, such as, *Mongoloid, Indo-Aryan, Dravidian*; *Mongolo-Dravidian, Aryo-Dravidian, Scytho-Dravidian* and *Turko-Iranian.*

Next classification was made by Dr. J. H. Hutton in 1933 based on race-cum-language and culture sequence. According to this theory all people came to India from outside, such as—

(1) *Negritos* from Africa—the oldest people to have come to India now surviving in the Andaman islands and in Malaya. Traces of them seem to occur among the Nagas in Assam and in certain tribes in South India.

(2) *Proto-Australoids*—who came from the East Mediterranean area.

(3) *Early Mediterraneans*—who brought earlier forms of the Austric speech.

(4) *Civilised or Advanced Mediterraneans*—who became Dravidians in India.

(5) *Armenoids*—a specialised offshoot of the standard Alpine stock, probably came with the civilised Mediterraneans (Dravidians) and spoke their language.

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(6) *Alpines*—found in Gujarat and Bengal ; earlier than Vedic Aryans but probably speaking Aryan dialects.

(7) *Vedic Aryans or Nordics*—who brought the Vedic Aryan (Sanskrit) speech.

(8) *Mongoloids*—not important for the greater part of India, as they touched only the northern and eastern fringes.

The most recent and authoritative classification has been made by Dr. B. S. Guha, who was the Director of Anthropology. He divides the people of India into six main races with nine sub-types.

(1) *Negrito*—is now almost extinct in India. A small group is still surviving in Andamans and its traces have been found among Kadars and Palayans of Cochin and Travancore Hills, Irurals of the Wynad, the Angami Nagas of Assam and some of the Rajmahal peoples like the Semangs of Malaya and the Papuans of New Guinea, Hill tribes of Bihar. They are related to the Asian and Oceanic but not to the African Negroes and Negritoes.

(2) *Proto-Australoids*—are related genetically to the Australians as well as the Europeans. They survive in a good many aboriginal peoples of the present-day India, although more or less mingled with other people. The majority of the tribal peoples of central and southern India belong to this group. Throughout the greater part of India, the Proto-Australoid peoples still live as the lower castes or sections of the Indian people.

(3) *The Mongoloid Group*—is found in the mountainous zones of north and north-east India. This group is divided into (*a*) *Palaeo-Mongoloids* consisting of long headed and broad headed types. They form a dominant element in the tribes in Assam and the Indo-Burmese frontier and among the less primitive types in Burma and in Chittagong ; (*b*) *Tibeto-Mongoloids* are found in Sikkim and Bhutan. Their physical characteristics are : short and broad face with high cheek bones, a skin fold from the upper-eyelid covering usually the inner eye corner, giving the eye a silt and oblique appearance ; scanty hair on face and body and light brown skin with yellowish tint.

(4) *Mediterranean Group*—consisting of (*a*) Palaeo-Mediterranean, medium statured, dark skinned and slight built, found in Kannada, Tamil and Malayalam tracts ; (*b*) Mediterranean, true European type found in the Punjab, Upper Gangetic Valley and is supposed to represent civilised pre-Aryan Dravidian people of Northern India, who contributed largely to the evolution of Hindu people and culture of North India ; (*c*) Oriental Type, sometimes called Semitic or Jewish, found in the Punjab, in Sind, in Rajasthan, in western U.P. and in some other parts of India.

(5) *Western Brachycephals*—consisting of (*a*) Alpinoid, (*b*) Dinarik and *c*) Armenoid,. They seem to have evolved in the Central Asian mountain regions and both Alpine and Dinarik varieties appear to have spread over the greater part of India, *i.e.*, Bengal. Orissa. Kathiawar, Kannada and Tamil countries, Gujarat, West Coast of India, excepting Malabar. The Parsis of Bombay are allied to Armenoids.

(6) *Nordics*—are the Aryan speaking group of India who are responsible for India's Hindu civilization and seem to have

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come from the Eurasian steppe lands and entered India during the second half of the second millennium B.C. The Nordic elements are strong in North-West Frontier of India, in the south of Hindu-Kush range. Nordic elements are present in mixed form in Punjab, Rajasthan, Upper Ganges Valley. They are also found among higher castes and groups and also Nordic type predominates in certain sections in India.

Lastly the author of this classification—Dr. B. S. Guha has, however, stated, "It must be clearly understood that no rigid separation is possible as there is considerable over-lapping of types."

MINERALS

India is sufficiently rich in mineral resources. She is favoured with a supply of coal sufficient for its present and future industry. More than 80 p.c. of India's coal is produced in the States of Bihar and West Bengal. Iron ore reserves of India is one-fourth of the total world reserves and are estimated at 2,100 crore tons. The country has enormous resources or iron ore, has deposits of high grade ore, being among the richest in the world. Ores of good quality are found in Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Bombay and Mysore.

Deposits of mica and manganese are large enough not only to meet present domestic requirements but also to enter significantly into the country's export trade. India produces about 75 p.c. of the world's total supply of mica, the principal deposits being found in Bihar, Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh. She has also a good reserve of bauxite and has substantial deposits of titanium and thorium ores, kyanite, beryllium, chrome and gypsum. The supplies of refractories, abrasives and limestones are fairly adequate. Although there are sufficient resources of minerals essential for basic indutsries, the country is, however, deficient in copper, tin, lead, zinc, nickel, cobalt, sulphur, and above all petroleum.

Various rock formations of India constitute a rich source of building materials. Rajasthan has pink marble and the Deccan excellent granite. Rich deposits of white and grey marble and limestone occur in various parts of India. Cream and reddish brown sandstone is found in north India.

AGRICULTURE

India remains a predominently agricultural country. There is hardly a crop of the tropical, sub-tropical or temperate zone which is not grown in this country. The principal crops grown in India are rice, wheat, sugarcane, pulses, and oilseeds, cotton, jute and tea. Agriculture is the largest single industry in India and as an agricultural country she occupies a unique position in the world. She is the largest sugarcane producing country in the world. She holds virtual monopoly in lac, follows U.S.A. in cotton, ranks with China and Africa as one of the leading millet producing countries and leads with China in the production of rice and tea.

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More than 50 per cent of tea produced in the world comes from India. Commercial crops form bulk of country's exports. It must be remembered, however, that in the matter of agricultural self-sufficiency, India has two formidable problems in the annual 5½ million increase of population and the uncertainty of climate. Both drought and floods can quickly upset all calculations. India, consequently, has a large number of grand-scale combined irrigation and hydro-electric river control projects.

FAUNA

Indian climatic conditions have naturally developed a great variety of animal life and the number of animal species much greater than that in Europe.

In India, animals are chiefly seen in the valleys of the Himalayas (*i.e. Terai Forests*) extending from Kashmir to the Brahmaputra valley, on the Eastern and Western Ghats and in the jungles of Madhya Pradesh and Central India.

(1) *Wild Animals—Lion,* although at one time threatened with extinction, is now preserved in Gir forest of Kathiawar. The chief beast of prey is *tiger* which is almost ubiquitous. The *leopard* is found in even greater numbers. Among other wild animals to be found are the *bear, boar, wolf, fox, bison, buffalo, elephant* and *rhinoceros.*

(2) *Domestic Animals—Goats, sheep, horses, ponies, asses, mules, bullocks, buffaloes* are available here and there. *Camels* are seen in the desert districts of Rajasthan and Punjab. Sheep and goats are plentiful as is also the *pig, monkeys* and *deer* of all kinds abound throughout the country.

(3) *Reptiles*—The rivers are infested with *crocodiles* and *alligators.* Poisonous *snakes* abound, the most deadly being the cobra and the *krait* and *Russel's viper.*

(4) The *birds* are of tropical varieties. The birds of prey insclude the *vulture,* the *eagle* and *falcons* of all kinds. *Herons* and kingfishers abound and are much sought after on account of their plumage. *Waterfowls* are particularly numerous and also almost all the game birds, *i.e., pigeons, partridges, quails* and *ducks* of many kinds.

(5) *Fish*—Most numerous fish are of carp family. The finest fish from angler's point is *Masher,* found in all streams. The richest and tasty fish of India is *hilsa.* Fishing waters, river and sea, of Bengal and Madras are among the most extensive in the world.

COMMUNICATIONS

All railways in India are state-owned and with a mileage of 34,100, claim to be the largest system in Asia and the fourth largest in the world. The railways are organised into eight zones and the overall control and administration is in the hands of the Railway Board at New Delhi. The zones are Southern, Central, Western, Northern, North-Eastern, North-East Frontier, Eastern and South-Eastern.

Civil aviation is rapidly assuming an important role in India's

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communication system. There are altogether 81 aerodromes under Government control and operation, of which three are international air ports—Bombay (Santa Cruz), Calcutta (Dum Dum), and Delhi (Palam). A further 9 aerodromes have been declared customs aerodrome. A Civil Aviation Training Centre has been opened at Allahabad. There are twelve subsidised flying clubs. All air transport is nationalised and controlled through two Corporations, Air India International and Indian Air Lines Corporation.

Roads are divided into four main administrative classes, namely, national highways, state highways, district roads and village roads. The national highways connect capitals of States, major ports and foreign highways and constitute the main arteries of communication in the country. The State highways are the main trunk roads of the States. The village roads meet the requirements of rural communities.

India has a coastline over 3,500 miles and mrchant ships from all important maritime countries call at her ports. Her coastal trade is carried wholly in Indian bottoms. But it is essential that the country has a fair share of its overseas trade also. Several steps have been taken in public as well as private sectors to increase India's overseas shipping.

FORESTS

The forests of India cover 22.1 per cent of the country's area. The forests are mainly confined to the Himalayas, Vindhyas and the Deccan.

India has been divided into three botanical areas and six provinces for the proper study of vegetation of India. The three botanical areas are (a) *Himalayan*—represents a rich, tropical temperate and alpine flora with forests of conifers, oaks, rhododendrons and a profusion of orchids, (b) *Eastern*—consisting of a few conifers, many oaks and palms with a greater preponderance of orchids and (c) *Western*—which has only one conifer, few palms and very small orchids without any oak.

These three areas are divided into six botanical provinces based on their climate and physical characters, namely (1) Eastern Himalaya, (2) Western Himalaya, (3) Indus plain, (4) Gangetic plain including Sunderbans, (5) Malabar and (6) Deccan—each with its peculiar flora.

The forest vegetation of India is divided into five types according to the variation in climate, altitude and habitat, such as—(1) *Evergreen*, (2) *Deciduous*, (3) *Dry*, (4) *Hill* and (5) *Tidal* or *Littoral*.

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INDIAN INFORMATION

STATES & TERRITORIES OF INDIA

STATES

	Area sq. m.	*Population*	*Density*	*Capital*
Andhra Pradesh ..	1,06,052	3,12,60,133	295	Hyderabad
Assam ..	84,899	90,43,707	106	Shillong
Bihar ..	67,198	3,87,83,778	577	Patna
Gujrat ..	72,137	1,62,62,135	223	Ahmadabad
Jammu & Kashmir	86,024	44,10,000	51	Srinagar
Kerala ..	12,003	1,35,49,118	903	Trivandrum
Madhaya Pradesh ..	1,71,210	2,60,71,637	152	Bhopal
Madras ..	50,132	2,99,74,936	598	Madras
Maharashtra ..	1,18,903	..	..	Bombay
Mysore ..	74,122	1,94,01,193	262	Bangalore
Orissa ..	60,162	1,46,45,946	243	Bhubaneswar
Punjab ..	47,084	1,61,34,890	343	Chandigarh
Rajasthan ..	1,32,150	1,59,70,774	121	Jaipur
Uttar Pradesh ..	1,13,452	6,32,15,742	557	Lucknow
West Bengal ..	33,928	2,63,02,386	775	Calcutta

TERRITORIES

Andaman & Nicobar Islands ..	3,215	30,971	10	Port Blair
Delhi ..	573	17,44,072	3,041	Delhi
Himachal Pradesh ..	10,380	11,09,466	102	Simla
Laccadives Minicoy & Amindivi Islands	11	21,035	1,912	Khozikhode
Manipur ..	8,628	5,77,635	67	Imphal
Tripura ..	4,036	6,39,029	158	Agartala

CITIES OF INDIA

Andhra		Jamshedpur	2,18,162	Kolhapur	1,36,835
Hyderabad	10,85,722	Gaya	1,33,700	Amravati	1,24,064
Vijayawada	1,61,198	Bhagalpur	1,14,530		
Warangal	1,33,130	Ranchi	1,06,849	**Gujarat**	
Guntur	1,25,255				
Visakhapatnam	1,08,042	**Bombay**		Ahmedabad	7,93,813
Calicut	1,58,724	Bombay (Greater)	28,39,270	Surat	2,23,182
Rajahmundry	1,05,276	Poona	4,80,982	Rajkot	1,32,069
		Nagpur	4,49,099	Jamnagar	1,04,419
Bihar		Sholapur	2,77,057	Bhavnagar	1,37,951
Patna	2,83,479	Baroda	2,11,407	Baroda	2,11,407
				Junagadh	1,21,079

*Approximate.

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Madhya Pradesh

Indore	3,10,859
Jabalpur	2,56,998
Gwalior	2,41,577
Ujjain	1,29,817
Bhopal	1,02,633

Madras

Madras	14,16,056
Madurai	3,61,781
Tiruchirapalli	2,55,623
Salem	2,02,335
Coimbatore	1,97,755
Vellore	1,06,024
Tanjore	1,00,680
Tirunelvelli	1,13,486

Orissa

Cuttack	1,02,505

Punjab

Amritsar	3,25,747
Jullundur	1,68,816
Ludhiana	1,53,795

Uttar Pradesh

Kanpur	7,05,383
Lucknow	4,96,861
Agra	3,75,665
Banaras	3,55,777
Allahabad	3,32,295
Meerut	2,33,183
Bareilly	2,08,083
Moradabad	1,61,854
Saharanpur	1,48,435
Dehra Dun	1,44,216
Aligarh	1,41,618
Gorakpur	1,32,436
Rampur	1,34,277
Jhansi	1,27,356

West Bengal

Calcutta (Greater)	45,78,071
Howrah	4,33,630
Bhatpara	1,34,916
Kharagpur	1,29,836
Garden Reach	1,09,160
Behala	1,04,055
Tollyganj	1,49,317

Mysore

Bangalore	7,78,977
Mysore	2,44,323
Kolar Gold Fields	1,59,084
Hubli	1,29,609
Mangalore	1,17,083

Rajasthan

Jaipur	2,91,130
Ajmer	1,96,633
Jodhpur	1,80,717
Bikaner	1,17,113

Kerala

Trivandrum	1,86,931
Alleppey	1,16,278

Delhi

Delhi	9,14,790
New Delhi	2,76,314

HILL STATIONS

	Above sea level (ft.)		*Above sea level (ft.)*
Almora (U.P.)	5,500	Lansdowne (U.P.)	6,060
Bangalore (Mysore)	3,000	Mahabaleshwar (Bombay)	4,500
Bhowali (U.P.)	5,500	Matheran (Bombay)	2,650
Chakrata (U.P.)	7,000	Mount Abu (Rajasthan)	4,500
Cherrapunji (Assam)	4,500	Mussoorie (U.P.)	6,580
Coonoor (Madras)	6,740	Nainital (U.P.)	6,400
Dalhousie (Punjab)	7,867	Ootacamund (Madras)	7,500
Darjeeling (W. Bengal)	7,168	Panchmarhi (M.P.)	4,500
Gulmarg (Kashmir)	7,700	Ranikhet (U.P.)	6,000
Kalimpong (W. Bengal)	4,000	Ranchi (Bihar)	2,100
Kasauli (Punjab)	6,200	Shillong (Assam)	4,980
Kodaikanal (Madras)	7,000	Simla (Punjab)	7,235
Kalu Valley (Punjab)	5,000	Ranchi (Bihar)	2,000

INDIAN BRIDGES

	feet		*feet*
Sone Bridge	10,052	Ganga Bridge (Mokameh, 1959)	6,078
Godavari Bridge	9,096	Izat Bridge (Allahabad, 1912)	6,830
Mahanadi Bridge	6,912		

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	feet		*feet*
Dufferin Bridge (Banaras, 1887)	3,578	Ravi Bridge (Pathankot-Jammu) ..	2,800
Curzon Bridge Allahabad, 1905)	3,200	Jumna Bridge (1866 Delhi)	2,640
Vivekananda Bridge ..	2,610	Malaviya Bridge (1887, Banaras)	..
Howrah Bridge* (1943)	2,150	Sutlej Bridge ..	4,210
Jubilee Bridge (Naihati)	1,213	Alexandra (Chenab) ..	9,088
Meghna Bridge ..	1,213	Narbada Bridge (1881)	4,687
Tapti Bridge (1872) ..	2,556	Hooghly Bridge ..	1,213
Naini Bridge (1865, Allahabad) ..	3,235		

NATIONAL PARKS & GAME SANCTUARIES

Hazaribagh National Park, Bihar.
Shivapuri National Park, Gwalior.
Jaldapara Game Sanctuary (W. Bengal).
Wild Life Sanctuary, Garumara (Jalpaiguri, W. Bengal).
Bandipur Game Sanctuary, Mysore.
Pariyar Wild-life Sanctuary, Travancore.
Sonai-Rupa Game Sanctuary, Darrang (Assam).
Corbitt National Park (U.P.).
Kanheri National Park, Kanheri Valley, Bombay.
Mudumalai Game Sanctuary, Nilgiri, Madras.
Tirap Frontier Tract National Park, Assam.
Praba Buffalo Sanctuary, N. Lakhimpur (Assam).
Orang & Laokhowa Reserves (Darrang & Nowgong).
Manas Game Sanctuary, Kamrup (Assam).
Khiziranga Game Sanctuary, Sibsagar (Assam).

TEN HIGHEST PEAKS OF HIMALAYAS

	Height	*Climbed on*	*Expedition*
Everest ..	29,015	May, 1953	British
K^2 ..	28,250	July, 1954	Italian
Kanchenjunga ..	28,146	May, 1955	British
Lhotse ..	27,890	May, 1956	Swiss
Makalu ..	27,824	May, 1955	French
Cho Oyu ..	26,967	Oct., 1954	Austrian
Annapurna ..	26,926	June, 1950	French
Dhawalgiri ..	26.795	May, 1960	Swiss
Mansalu ..	26,656	May, 1956	Japanese
Nanga Parvat ..	26,029	July, 1955	Austro-German

ESTIMATED HEIGHTS OF THE MOUNT EVEREST

29,002 ft. by Sir Andrew Waugh
29,141 ft. by Sir Sydney Burrad
29,080 ft. by Dr. J. De Graff Hunter.
*29,028 ft. by Swiss Foundation for Alpine Research and Survey of India.

* Largest cantilever span bridge in India and the third largest cantilever bridge in the world.

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EVEREST EXPEDITION

1921—led by 1st reconnaissance expedition Col. Howard Burv. reached North Col. for the first time

1922—Expedition led by J. G. Bruce 26,985 ft.

1924—Expedition led by Lt. Gen. E. F. Norton 28,126 ft.

1933—Expedition led by Hugh Ruttlege 27,400 ft.

1934—M. Wilson's lone attempt in which he lost his life.

1935—Eric Shipton's reconnaissance expedition reached North Col.

1936—Exp. by Hugh Ruttlege, given up due to bad weather.

1938—Light mobile expedition by Tilman via North Col. given up for atrocious weather 27,320 ft.

1951—Reconnaisance expedition by Shipton to discover route from South Col. from the head of CWM through Nepal.

1952—Swiss Expedition by Dr. Wyss-Dunant (reached by Lambert & Tensing), 28,210 ft.

1952—2nd Swiss Expedition by Chevalley 26,560 ft.

1953—British Expedition by Col. John Hunt reaches Everest on 29-5-53 (*reached by Tensing and Hillary*), 29,028 ft.

1956—Third Swiss Expedition reaches Everest twice, on 23rd May and on 24th May.

1960—Chinese Expedition reached the summit on 25th May.

CONQUEST OF MAJOR HIMALAYAN PEAKS

Trisul by Longstaff (1907) 23,406
Do. by Oliver & K. Singh (1933)
Do. by Indian Expedition (1951)

Jonsong Peak by Prof. Dyhrenforth (1930) .. 24,472

Kabru by W. W. Graham, 1883

Annapurna by French Expedition, leader M. Hertzog (1950) .. 26,926

Annapurna II by Br.-Indian-Nepalese Expedition (1960) .. 26,041

Dhaulagiri by Swiss Expedition (1960) .. 26,795

Tirich Mir by Norwegian Expedition (1950) 25,263

Satopanth by Roch & Sutter (1947) .. 23,240

Ramthang Peak by Prof. Dyhrenforth (1930) .. 23,200

Mukut Parbat by A. E. Riddiford (1951) .. 23,760

Mount Kamet by F. S. Smythe (1931) .. 25,447

Nanda Devi by Tilman & Odell (1936) .. 25,645

Dunagiri by A. Roch (1939) 23,772

Kedarnath by Roch & Sutter (1947) .. 22,772

Bandar Punch by J. T. M. Gibson (1950) .. 20,720

Panch Chuli Peak by P. Nikore (1953) .. 22,650

Makalu by French Expedition led by J. Franco 27,824

K^2 (Godwin Austen) by Italians (1954) .. 28,250

Cho-Oyu in Nepalese Himalayas by Austrian Expedition (1955) .. 26,876

Nanga Parvat by German Aust. Exp. (1953) 26,029

Mt. Nunkun in Jammu & Kashmir by French Exp. (1953) .. 23,410

Mansalu by Japanese Expedition (1956) .. 26,456

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Makalu by French Expedition (1955) ..	27,824	*Cho-Oyu* by Indian Expedition (1958) ..	26,876
Kanchenjunga by British Expedition (1955) ..	28,146	*Bunder Punch* by Indian Expedition (1959) ..	20,956
Lhotse by Swiss Expedition (1956) ..	27,970		

CONQUEST OF KARAKORAM MOUNTAIN

Ghasherbrum II by Austrians (1956)	26,360	*Rakaposhi* by Br.-Pakistan Expedition (1958)	26,600
Broad Peak by Austrians (1957)	26,414	*Muztagh Tower* by Br. Expedition (1957) ..	23,860

HIGHEST INDIAN STRUCTURES

	feet		*feet*
*Kutub Minar	238	Gopuram of Madurai Temple (Largest one) ..	152
Tower of Victory, Chitore	122	Buland Darwaja (Fatehpur Sikri)	176
†Victoria Memorial ..	182	Rajabai Tower (University), Bombay ..	260
Ochterloney Monument, Cal.	152	Calcutta High Court ..	180
4 minarets of Taj (each)	137		
Taj Mahal	178		
Char Miner (Hyderabad)	186		
Gol Gumbaz (Bijapur) ..	198		

OLD & NEW NAMES OF PLACES

Old Names	*New Names*	*Old Names*	*New Names*
Calicut ..	Kozhikode	Mandi Phul (Pepsu) ..	Pool (Mandi)
Cawnpur ..	Kanpur	Masulipatam	Bandar
Bilsa (Bhopal)	Bidisa	Mayaveram (Madras) ..	Mayuram
Muttra ..	Mathura	Ajmere-Merwara ..	Ajmer
Benares ..	Varanasi	Vizagapatnam	Visakhapatnam
United Provinces ..	Uttar Pradesh	Trichinopoly	Tiruchirapally
Central Provinces ..	Madhya Pradesh	Bezwada ..	Vijayawada
Hyderabad & Andhra ..	Andhra Pradesh	Ganges ..	Ganga
Travancore-Cochin ..	Kerala	Madura ..	Madurai
Amraoti ..	Amaravati	Banaras ..	Varanasi
Cocanada ..	Kakinada	Shiyali ..	Shirkali
Conjeeveram	Kancheepuram	Ramnad (Madras) ..	Ramanathapuram
Ellichpur (M.P.)	Achalpur	Sadulgarh (Rajasthan)	Hanumangarh
Ellore	Eluru	Saugor	Sagar
Jabalpur ..	Jabalpur		

* 379 steps.
† From ground level to the base of the victory figure.

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Tinnevelly ..	Tirunelveli	Chitaldurg ..	Chitra Durga
Tiruvadi (Madras) ..	Tiruvaiyaru	Deoria ..	Krishnagarh
Mau (Jhansi)	Mau Rampur	Tanjore ..	Thanjavur
Mau (U.P.) ..	Maunath Bhanjan	Chitor ..	Chitorgarh
		Navnagar ..	Jamnagar

INDIAN FELLOWS OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY

A. Carsetji.	(1841)	Birbal Sahani.	(1936)	P. C. Mahalanobis.	(1945)
S. Ramanujam.	(1918)	K. S. Krishnan	(1940)	D. N. Wadia.	(1957)
J. C. Bose.	(1920)	H. J. Bhabha	(1941)	S. N. Bose.	(1958)
C. V. Raman.	(1924)	S. Bhatnagar	(1943)	S. K. Mitra	(1958)
Megnad Saha.	(1927)	S. Chandrasekhar	(1945)	T. R. Seshadri.	(1960)

INDIANS IN THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

Sir Muncherjee Bhowanagree (Conservative).
Dadabhai Naoroji (Liberal).
Sapurji Saklatvala (Communist).
Lord Sinha of Raipur (House of Lords).
Lord Sinha, Second Baron of Raipur (House of Lords).

INDIAN PRIVY COUNCILLORS

Syed Ameer Ali.
Sir B. C. Mitter.
1921—V. S. Srinivasa Sastri.
1926—Lord Sinha.
1930—Sir D. F. Mulla.
1931—Sir Shadilal.
1934—Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru.
1934—H. H. The Aga Khan.
1936—Sir Akbar Hydari.
1939—Dr. M. R. Jayakar.
1941—Sir C. Madhavan Nair.

INDIAN PEERS OF THE BRITISH REALM

Sinha, Aroon Kumar (b. 1887).
Heir—Hon'ble Sudhindra Sinha (b. 1921).

INDIAN MEMBER OF THE U.S. CONGRESS

Dilip Sing Saund (Democrat)

NOBEL PRIZE WINNERS

1913—Rabindranath Tagore, (*Literature*).
1930—Sir C. V. Raman, (*Physics*).

LENIN PEACE PRIZE

1952 .. Dr. Safiuddin Kitchlu
1953 .. Major-General S. S. Sokhey
1958 .. Sir C. V. Raman

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WINNERS OF PARAM VIR CHAKRA

(*India's highest military decoration*)

Major Somnath Sharma, *4th Bn. Kumaon Regt.* (*Posthumous*), 1947.
2/Lt. R. R. Rane, *Corps of Engineers*, 1948.
Com. Hav-Major Piru Singh, *Rajputana Rifles*, (*Posthumous*), 1948.
L/Nk. Karam Singh, *Sikh Regiment*, 1948.
Naik Jadunath Singh, *Rajput Regiment*, 1948.

GOVERNOR-GENERALS OF INDIAN UNION

Lord Louis Mountbatten 1947-48.
C. Rajagopalachari 1948-49.

PRESIDENT OF INDIA

Dr. Rajendra Prasad (*1st term*) 1950—1957
Dr. Rajendra Prasad (*2nd term*) 1957—

VICE-PRESIDENT OF INDIA

Dr. S. Radhakrishnan (*1st term*) 1952—1957
Dr. S. Radhakrishnan (*2nd term*) 1957—

INDIAN PARLIAMENT

Lok Sabha: Speakers—G. V. Mavlankar 1952-56.
—Anantasayanam Iyengar 1956—
Rajya Sabha: Chairman—Dr. S. Radhakrishnan 1952—

MILITARY CHIEFS OF INDIA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

Army

General Sir R. M. Lockhart 1948
General F. R. R. Bucher 1948.
General K. M. Cariappa 1949
General Maharaj Rajendra Singji 1953
General S. M. Srinagesh 1955
General Thimmaya 1957
P. N. Thapar 61

Navy

Vice-Admiral Sir E. Perry 1948
Vice-Admiral C. T. M. Pizey 1951
Vice-Admiral S. H. Carlill 1955-58
Vice-Admiral R. D. Katari 1958

Air

Air Marshal R. J. Chapman 1948
Air Marshal G. E. Gibbs 1951
Air Marshal S. Mukherjee 1954
" " E. M. Engineer 61

INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS PRESIDENTS
(First Session, 1885)

1885 Bombay—W. C. Bonnerji.
1886 Calcutta—D. Naoroji.
1887 Madras—B. Tyabji.
1888 Allahabad—George Yule.
1889 Bom.—Sir W. Wedderburn.
1890 Calcutta—Sir P. Mehta.

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Indian National Congress Presidents—(*Contd.*)

1891 Nagpur—P. Ananda Charlu.
1892 Allahabad—W. C. Bonnerji.
1893 Lahore—D. Naoroji.
1894 Madras—Alfred Webb.
1895 Poona—S. N. Banerji.
1896 Calcutta—R. M. Sayani.
1897 Amraoti—C. Sankaran Nair.
1898 Madras—A. M. Bose.
1899 Lucknow—R. C. Dutt.
1900 Lahore—
N. G. Chandravarkar.
1901 Calcutta—Dinshaw Wacha.
1902 Ahmedabad—S. N. Banerji.
1903 Madras—Lalmohan Ghose.
1904 Bombay—Sir H. Cotton.
1905 Benares—G. K. Gokhale.
1906 Calcutta—D. Naoroji.
1907 Surat—R. B. Ghose.
1908 Madras—R. B. Ghose.
1909 Lahore—Pt. M. M. Malaviya.
1910 Allahabad—
Sir W. Wedderburn.
1911 Calcutta—Bishen N. Dar.
1912 Patna—R. N. Mudholkar.
1913 Karachi—Sayed Muhammad.
1914 Madras—B. N. Bose.
1915 Bombay—Sir S. P. Sinha.
1916 Lucknow—A. C. Majumdar.
1917 Calcutta—Annie Besant.
1918 Bom. (Spl.)—Hasan Imam.
1918 Delhi—Pt. M. M. Malaviya.
1919 Amritsar—Motilal Nehru.
1920 Cal. (Spl.)—Lala Lajpat Rai.
1920 Nagpur—C. Vijayaraghavachariar.
1921 Ahmedabad—Ajmal Khan.
1922 Gaya—C. R. Das.
1923 Delhi (Spl.)—A. K. Azad.
1923 Cocanada—Mahomed Ali.
1924 Belgaum—M. K. Gandhi.
1925 Cawnpore—Sarojini Naidu.
1926 Gauhati—Srinivasa Iyengar.
1927 Madras—Dr. M. A. Ansari.
1928 Cal.—Pt. Motilal Nehru.
1929 Lahore—J. L. Nehru.
1931 Karachi—Sardar V. Patel.
1932 Delhi—Seth Ranchhodlal.
1933 Cal.—Nellie Sen Gupta.
1934 Bombay—Rajendra Prasad.
1935 Lucknow—J. L. Nehru.
1937 Faizpur—J. L. Nehru.
1938 Haripura—Subhas Bose.
1939 Tripuri—Subhas Bose.
1940 Ramgarh—A. K. Azad.
1946 J. L. Nehru.
1946 Meerut—J. B. Kripalani.
1947 Dr. Rajendra Prasad.
1948 Jaipur—Dr. P. Sitaramiyya.
1950 Nasik—P. D. Tandon.
1951 Meerut—J. L. Nehru.
1952 Hyderabad—J. L. Nehru.
1953 Kalyani—J. L. Nehru.
1955-56 Avadi (60)—
U. N. Dhebar.
1956 Amritsar (61)—
U. N. Dhebar.
1957 Gauhati (62)—U. N. Dhebar.
1959 Nagpur—Indira Gandhi.
1960 Bangalore—Sanjiva Reddy.

INDIAN CHRONOLOGY

B.C.
3000—Indus Valley civilization.
1500-900—Composition of the hymns of the Rigveda.
900—Mahabharta war.
563-483—Birth and death of Buddha.
540-468—Traditional dates of birth and death of Mahavira.
377—Buddhist Council at Baisali.
326—Alexander's invasion of India.
B.C.
325-184—Foundation of Maurya Empire by Chandragupta.
542-490—Bimbisara King of Magadha.
253-237—Reign of Asoka.
190—Greek Kingdoms of N.-W. India.
90—Sakas invade India.

A.D.
1—Kusans invade N-W. India.
78—Accession of Kanishka.

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Indian Chronology—(*Contd.*)

A.D.

320-500—Gupta dynasty ; Golden Age of Indian art, science and literature.
335-376—Samudra Gupta.
376-415—Reign of Chandragupta II (Vikramaditya).
405-11—Fa Hien travels in Gupta Empire.
454—First Hun invasions.
480-90—Break up of Gupta Empire.
606-647—Reign of Harsavardhan, King of Kanyakubja.
629-645—Hiuen Tsang's travels in India.
711—Arab conquest of Sind by Mohammed-bin-Qasim.
730—Yasovarman of Kanyakubja.
735—First Parsi settlement in India.
760-1142—Palas of Bengal and Bihar.
960-1203—Chandellas of Bundelkhand.
1000-1026—Muslim invasions of India by Mahmud of Ghazni.
1050—Atisa Dipankara sent on Buddhist mission to Tibet.
1118-1199—Senas of Bengal.
1192—Defeat and death of Prithviraj, the last Rajput King of Delhi.
1190-1290—Establishment of Muslim rule in North India : Reign of Slave Kings.
1228—Conquest of Assam by the Ahoms.
1231-32—The Kutub Minar.
1236—Death of Iltutmish—Accession of Raziyya.
1236—Foundation of Vijayanagar Kingdom.
1320-1414—Tughlak Sultans of Delhi.
1334-1342—Iban Batuta in India.
1347—Foundation of Bahmani Kingdom of Deccan.
1398—Invasion of Timur.
1451-1526—Lodi Sultans of Delhi.
1469—Birth of Guru Nanak.
1486-1533—Chaitanya, Saint of Bengal.
1494—Foundation of Agra by Sikandar Lodi.
1498—Vasco da Gama reaches Calicut.
1510—Portuguese capture Goa.
1526—Establishment of Mughal Empire by Babar.
1538-1545—Reign of Sher Shah.
1565—Battle of Talikota—overthrow of the Vijayanagar Kingdom.
1556-1605—Reign of Akbar.
1564—Abolition of *Jizya*.
1571—Fatehpur Sikri founded.
1586—Annexation of Kashmir by Akbar.
1597—Death of Rana Pratap.
1600—East India Company founded under Royal Charter.
1605—Death of Akbar.
1612—First English Factory at Surat.
1627-1657—Reign of Shah Jahan.
1627—Birth of Sivaji.
1634—*Firman* permitting the English to trade in Bengal.
1658—Coronation of Aurangzeb.
1666—Sivaji's visit to Aurangzeb's court and his imprisment and escape.
1668—First French Factory at Surat.
1675—Execution of Tegh Bahadur, 9th Guru of the Sikhs.
1680—Death of Sivaji.
1686-87—Fall of the Kingdoms of Bijapur & Golconda.
1698—The English obtain Zamindari of the three villages of Sutanati, Kalikata and Gobindapur—nucleus of Calcutta.

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Indian Chronology—(*Concld.*)

1707—Death of Aurangzeb.
1734—Nadir Shah sacks Delhi.
1757—Battle of Plassey.
1761—Third battle of Panipat.
1765—Grant of Dewani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to E.I. C.
1770—Famine of Bengal.
1774-95—Warren Hastings—Governor General of India.
1775—Execution of Nand Kumar.
1780—Ranjit Singh establishes a Sikh Empire.
1784—Pitt's India Bill passed by Br. Parliament.
1790—Third Mysore War.
1793—Permanent settlement of Bengal.
1799—Death of Tipu Sultan. Partition of Mysore.
1829—Brahmo Samaj founded by Raja Rammohan Roy.
1829—Prohibition of *Sati.*
1833—Death of Raja Rammohan Roy.
1935—Introduction of English as medium of instruction.
1839—Death of Ranjit Singh.
1839-42—Anglo-Afgan War.
1853—Opening of Railways and telegraphs.
1854—Wood's Despatch on Education.
1856—Annexation of Oudh.
1857—Indian Mutiny.
1858—Transfer of India from Company to the Crown.
1869—Birth of Mahatma Gandhi.
1874—Great Famine of Bengal.
1875—Arya Samaj founded by Dayananda Saraswati.
1885—First Meeting of the Indian National Congress.
1905—Partition of Bengal.
1906—Foundation of the Muslim League.
1911—Partition of Bengal revoked.
1914—Gandhi returns to India from South Africa.
1919—Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms ; Jalianwalabag massacre at Amritsar (13th April).
1929—Non-Co-operation movement in India started.
1925—Death of C. R. Das.
1930-34—C. D. Movement—1st session of the Round Table Conference.
1931—Gandhi-Irwin Pact.
1935—Govt. of India Act, 1935.
1937—Inauguration of Provincial Autonomy, Congress Ministries in majority of Provinces.
1942—Cripp's Mission—Quit India Movement.
1943—Bengal Famine.
1946—Cabinet Mission's Plan—Interim Government with Jawaharlal Nehru as Prime Minister.
1947—Partition of India—India becomes independent—Kashmir attacked by Pakistan.
1948—Martyrdom of Mahatma Gandhi (Jan. 30).
India appeals to U.N. to stop aggression by Pakistan in Kashmir (Jan. 2).
1949—India's new Constitution passed into law.
1950—India becomes Republic (26th Jan.).
1951—1st Five-Year Plan launched.
1951—First general election in independent India.
1954—French Settlements in India merged to India.
1956—Indian States re-organised on linguistic basis.
1960—Partition of Bombay State into Maharashtra and Gujarat.

UP State Museum, Lucknow

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NOTABLE INDIANS

	Born	*Died*
Bal Gangadhar Tilak ..	1856	1920
A. M. Bose, *Congress President* ..	1847	1906
Sir K. Seshadri Iyer ..	1845	1901
M. G. Ranade, *Social*		
Dr. Mahendralal Sarkar ..	1833	1904
Sir J. N. Tata ..	1839	1904
Devendranath Tagore ..	1817	1905
W. C. Bonerjee, *1st. Cong. Prest.*	1844	1906 (19 July)
P. Ananda Charlu *7th Cong. Pres.*	1842	1908 (28 Nov.)
Sir V. Bashyam Iyengar ..	..	1908
Lalmohan Ghosh *Cong. Prest.* ..	1849	1909
R. C. Dutt, *Congress President* ..	1848 (13 Aug.)	1909 (30 Nov.)
Girishchandra Ghosh, *Dramatist*	1843	1911
G. K. Gokhale, *statesman, founder of Servants of India Society* ..	1866	1915
Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, *Cong. Pres.*	1825 (4 August)	1915
S. Ramanujam, *Mathematician* ..	..	1920 (26 April)
Sir Rashbehari Ghose ..	1845	1921
Ambica C. Majumdar, *Cong. Pres.*	1851	1922
Aswini Kumar Dutta ..	1856	1923
Sir N. G. Chandavarkar ..	1855	1923
Sir Asutosh Mukherjee ..	1864 (29 June)	1924 (25 May)
C. R. Das ..	1870 (5 Nov.)	1925 (16 June)
Sir S. N. Banerjee ..	1848	1925
Sir R. G. Bhandarkar ..	1837	1925 (24 Aug.)
Lala Lajpat Rai, *Indian Patriot* ..	1865	1928
Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi ..	..	1858 (21 June)
Lord Sinha of Raipur ..	1863	1928
Syed Ameer Ali ..	1849	1929
Pt. Motilal Nehru ..	1861 (6 May)	1931 (6 Feb.)
J. M. Sen Gupta ..	1885	1933 (23 July)
Sir Ali Imam ..	1869	1932
V. J. Patel ..	..	1933
Sir Sankaran Nair ..	..	1933
Dr. M. A. Ansari ..	1880	1936
Sir R. N. Mookerjee ..	1854	1936 (15 May)
Sir J. C. Bose ..	1858 (30 Nov.)	1937 (23 Nov.)
Sir Muhammad Iqbal ..	1864	1958
Sir Brojendranath Seal ..	1864	1938
Rabindranath Tagore ..	1861 (7 May)	1941 (7 Aug.)
Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru ..	1875	1948
Mahatma Gandhi ..	1869 (2 Oct.)	1948 (30 Jan.)
Sarojini Naidu ..	1879 (13 Feb.)	1949 (1 March)
Sri Aurobindo ..	1872 (15 Aug)	1950 (5 Dec.)
Sardar V. Patel ..	1875	1950 (15 Dec.)
Kristodas Pal *Politician* ..	1834	1884
Keshab Ch. Sen ..	1838	1884
Syed Ahmed Khan ..	1817	1898

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Notable Indians—(*Concld.*)

	Born	*Died*
Bipin Chandra Pal ..	1855	1932
Dr. Shyama P. Mukerjee ..	1901	1953 (23 June)
Dr. Sarat Ch. Chatterjee		
Srinivasa Sastri ..	1869	1946
Dadabhai Naoroji ..	1825	1917
Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar ..	1820 (26 Sept.)	1891 (29 July)
Raja Rammohan Roy ..	1774	1833 (27 Sept).
Ramkrishna Paramhamsa ..	1834 (20 Feb.)	1886 (16 Aug.)
Dayanand Saraswati ..	1824	1883 (30 Oct.)
Bankim Ch. Chatterjee, ..	1838 (26 June)	2894 (8 April)
Guru Nanak ..	1460	1531
Rashbehari Bose, *Famous Revolutionary* ..	1870	1944
Monomohon Ghosh ..	1844	1896
Sir Gurudas Banerjee ..	..	1918 (2 Dec.)
Sir Brojendra Nath Seal ..	1864	1938 (3 Dec.)
B. J. Tilak ..	..	1920 (1 Aug.)
Rajendralal Mitra, *Historian* ..	1824 (15 Feb.)	1891 (26 July)
Swami Vivekananda ..	1862 (12 Jan.)	1902 (2 July)
Michael Madhusudhan Dutt ..	1824 (25 Jan.)	1873 (29 June)
Taru Dutt, *Indian Poetess* ..	1856	1877
Abanindranath Tagore ..	1871	1951
Sister Nivedita ..	1867 (26 Oct.)	1911 (13 Oct.)
Pandit M. M. Malaviya ..	1861 (26 Dec.)	1946 (12 Nov.)
Subhas Chandra Bose ..	1897 (23 Jan.)	1945 (18 Aug.)
Surendranath Banerjee ..	1848 (10 Nov.)	1925 (6 Aug.)
Ravi Varma, *Famous Artist* ..	1848 (29 April)	1906 (Sept.)
Sir Jadunath Sarkar ..	1870 (10 Dec.)	1958 (June)

FIRST IN INDIA

Largest Lake—Wular Lake, Kashmir.

Highest Peak—Nanda Devi (25,645 feet).

Largest populated City—Greater Calcutta (45,78,071).

Largest State—Rajasthan

Highest Waterfall—Gersoppa Waterfall, Mysore (830 ft.).

Largest Forest State—Assam.

Highest rainfall—Cherrapunji, 426 in. average yearly.

Largest Delta—Sundarbans Delta (8,000 sq. miles).

Longest Cantilever Span Bridge—Howrah Bridge.

Largest Cave Temple—Ellora, Hyderabad.

Longest Corridor—Rameswaram Temple Corridor (4,000 ft. long).

Largest Mosque—Jumma Masjid, Delhi.

Longest Bridge—Sone Bridge (10,052 ft. long).

Highest Dam—Bhakkhra Dam (680 ft. High).

Largest Sugar-cane producing area—Uttar Pradesh.

Most literate part of India—Kerala.

Longest electric train service—Bombay to Poona.

First hydro-electric station—Darjeeling in 1897-98.

UP State Museum, Lucknow

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First in India—(*Concld.*)

First modern steel mill—At Kulti (Bengal) 1887.
Highest Gateway—Buland Darwaja (Fatehpur Sikri, 176 ft.)
Tallest Statue—Statue of Gomateswar (Mysore), 57 ft. high.
Longest Platform—Sonepur Platform (2,415 feet).
Longest Road—Grand Trunk Rd. (1,500 miles).
Htghest Tower—Kutub Miinar, Delhi.
Largest Dome—Gol Gambuz, Bijapur.
Largest Fair of Animals—Sonepur fair.
Biggest Zoo—Zoological Gardens, Alipur, Calcutta.
Largest Museum—Indian Museum, Calcutta.
Most Populated State—Uttar Pradesh.
Most-thickly populated State—Delhi.
Longest Tunnel—Jwahar Tunnel, linking Punjab and Kashmir, 1⅜ mile long, Asia's longest road tunnel.
Longest Dam—Hirakud Dam (15,748 ft.).

FIRST BEGINNINGS IN INDIA

1825—First issue of postal stamp in India in Sind.
1851—First official telegraph line opened for traffic between Calcutta and Diamond Harbour, October.
1853—First Indian Railway between Bombay and Thana, 16th April.
1854—First postage stamp on all India basis issued on 1st Oct.
1897-98—First electric plant installed at Darjeeling.
1911—First air-mail in India and the world from Bamrauli to Naini (Allahabad) 6 miles.
1925—First electric train between Bombay and Kurla.
1929—First issue of air-mail stamp in India and the world.

FIRST AMONG INDIANS

Indian Governor—Lord Sinha of Raipur.
F.R.S.—A. Carsetji.
Congress President—W. C. Bonnerjee.
Nobel Prize winner—Rabindranath Tagore.
I.C.S.—Satyendranath Tagore.
Bar-at-Law—J. M. Tagore.
Judge, High Court—Ramaprosad Roy.
Member, Viceroy's Executive Council—Sir S. P. Sinha.
Member, India Council—Sir K. G. Gupta.
Peer of the Br. Realm—Lord Sinha.
1st Indian to stand for the membership of the British Parliament—Lal Mohon Ghosh.
Wrangler, Cambridge University—A. M. Bose.
Woman President of U.N.—Vijayalakshmi Pandit.
Woman Minister of the Legislative Assembly—Mrs. Vijayalakshmi Pandit, Minister of U.P.
Woman Governor—Sarojini Naidu.
Woman President of the Congress Sarojini Naidu.
1st in I.C.S. Exam.—Sir Atul Chatterjee.

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Member, British Parliament—Dadabhai Naoroji.
First Woman Parachutist—Gita Chanda.
First Woman High Court Judge—Anna Chandi (Kerala).
Winner, Victoria Cross—Khudadad Khan.
Member, Privy Council—Syed Ameer Ali.
Member, House of Lords—Lord Sinha.
Commander-in-Chief—General Cariappa.
I.M.S.—Dr. Goodeve Chuckravarti.
Woman M.A.—Chandramukhi Bose.
Test cricket player—K. S. Ranjitsinji.
1st Woman Barrister—Mrs. Cornelia Sorabji.
Advocate-General—Sir V. Bashyam Iyengar.
Member of the U. S. Congress—D. S. Saund.

HILL STATIONS

Almora—in Kumaun Hills. Altitude 5,400 ft. above sea level. Mean annual rainfall 45.55 inches. It is about 30 miles from Ranikhet and 82 miles from Kathgodam by a good motor road. From Almora some of the highest peaks of the western Himalayas can be seen against the horizon. The main attraction for hickers is the famous Pindari glacier. Almora to Pindari glacier is 98 miles, the glacier is about two miles long, 300 to 400 yards broad and 13,000 to 14,000 ft. above sea level. The glacier which is named after the Pindari river is formed by the heavy snows on the peaks of Nanda Devi and Nanda kot.

Bhowali—is situated at a height of about 5,600 feet, and is only seven miles from Nainital. Bhowali is famous for its T. B. Sanatorium and is export centre for the famous Himalayan fruits.

Bhimtal—Just a little over 14 miles from Nainital is Bhimtal, enveloping a pretty lake which provides an excellent fishing centre.

Bangalore—The cantonment is the largest in South India. Bangalore has big industries, large parks and fine public buildings. Altitude 3,000 ft. above sea level.

Coonoor—on the Nilgiri Hills in the Madras State. Altitude 6,000 ft. above sea level. Nearest railway station is Coonoor. It is reached from Ootacamund by rail.

Chakrata (6,900 ft.)—is 21 miles from Mussoorie on the hill-road to Simla. It is surrounded by huge forests and lovely walks.

Cherrapunji—is 30 miles south of Shillong and receives more rainfall than any other place in the world ; the annual average being 426 inches. The nearest railway station is Pandu ; altitude 4,455 ft.

Dalhousie—Altitude 7,867 ft. above sea level and 52 miles from Pathankot railway station, reached by motor road. From Delhi it is a night's journey. It consists of five distinct hills.

Darjeeling—Altitude, 7,168 ft. above sea level, magnificent snow views of Mount Everest (29,002 ft.) nd Kanchenjunga (28,104 ft.). The minimum temperature in winter is about 30°. It is the centre of a large tea district. It is 369 miles from Calcutta.

Dharmsala—This is the headquarters of the Kangra district and

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a beautiful little hill resort in the midst of wild and picturesque surroundings. It is connected with the railhead at Pathankot by an excellent motor road (56 miles).

Gulmarg—is at a distance of 30 miles from Srinagar, and is one of the finest pleasure resorts of Kashmir ; popular for skating, trekking and other winter sports.

Kotagiri—is 18 miles from Ooty with an altitude of 6,500 ft.

Kalimpong— A hill station near Darjeeling. It is also reached from Siliguri by motor (41 miles). 4,100 ft. high.

Kodaikanal—A hill station in Southern India on the upper range of the Pulney Hills in the Madurai district. It is 7,000 ft. above the sea level. The nearest railway station is Kodaikanal Road.

Kasauli—A hill station in the Simla district, situated on the crest of a hill overlooking Kalka Valley and the plains of the Punjab, 23 miles from Kalka by motor road. It has the first Pasteur Institute in India, established in 1955.

Lansdowne—is situated in Garhwal about half-way between Mussoorie and Nainital. It commands a wonderful view of snows, the Badrinath block being nearest. It is reached by Northern Ry. from Kotdwara *via* Najibabad junction and there is good service of motor cars, a distance of 26 miles ; altitude 6,060 feet.

Mussoorie—is a hill sanatorium, on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, 22 miles from Dehra Dun, overlooking the beautiful Doon Valley. It is 168 miles from Delhi by a good motor road. Altitude 6,580 ft. above sea level. Nearest railway station is Dehra Dun.

Mukteshwar—A beauty spot in the Kumaun Hills. It offers a remarkable view of the surrounding valleys and the mountains gradually rising up to their snowcapped glory. The Government of India Veterinary Research Institute is located here.

Mount Abu—is reached by a good motor road from Abu Road railway station. The range is about 50 miles in circumference. The climate is very healthy and delightfully cool. The average temperature is 60°. Altitude 4,500 ft. above sea level. It is a place of pilgrimage for Jains, for here are celebrated Dilwara temples containing some of the finest specimens of Jain carving in India.

Nainital—is a hill sanatorium in Kumaun Hills, picturesquely situated on the shores of a beautiful lake. This lake has a superficial area of about 120.5 acres and a mile in diameter. Altitude 6,300 ft. It is only 22 miles from railhead at Kathgodam, which in turn is connected with Bareilly, Lucknow and Agra by direct train services. A car journey from Kathgodam to Nainital takes an hour and a half.

Pindari Glacier—is famous all over the world. It is five days' march from the motor-head at Almora. Situated at the heart of the Himalayas, the Pindari Glacier is more magnificent than Jang Frau of Switzerland.

Chail—lying on a ridge covered with a thick forests. Chail is connected with Simla by an almost best fairweather motor road. It is a delightful little hill station. There is a regular bus service between Kalka and Chail *via* Kandaghat.

Mahabaleswar—Principal hill station of the Bombay Presidency

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and summer retreat of the Bombay Government. Altitude 4,500 ft. above sea level. Nearest railway station is Poona, 75 miles.

Matheran—Nearest hill station of Bombay. It is only 2,650 ft. high.

Kulu & Kangra Valleys—lie at the foot of the Dhaula Dhar Range of the Himalayas. Kangra, Jogindernagar, Chamba, Dharmsala, Dalhousie and Kulu are some of the chief holiday resorts. Kulu and Kangra valleys are known for their orchards and tea plantations. The valley is about 4,700 ft. high. The main route is *via Pathankot.* Pathankot to Kulu is a distance of 175 miles by motor. The valley is called the Valley of the Gods due to every village having its own God.

Ootacamund—is the leading hill station of South India, situated in the heart of Nilgiris. Altitude 7,220 ft. above sea level. Mean annual day temperature is 57·50°F. The place is reached from Madras by Blue Mountain Express upto Mettupalayam, from where a hill railway conveys to Ooty over a distance of 30 miles.

Pachmarhi—in Hosangabad, Madhya Pradesh, is 32 miles from Pipariya Station on Central Ry. The place is only two hours' distance by an excellent motor road from the railway station of Pipariya. Pachmarhi rises 3,500 ft. above sea level.

Ranikhet—is about 40 miles from Nainital and 52 miles from the railway terminus of Kathgodam. It is 6,000 ft. high. Set amidst pine-clad hills, it is more or less a veritable garden town and commands an excellent view of the snows. Its greatest attraction is the wonderful view it commands of the Central Himalayan range extending from western Nepal to the snowy heights of Badrinath and Tehri Garhwal further west.

Ranchi—is the summar capital of Bihar. Altitude 2,200 ft. above sea level. Mean annual day temperature is 74.9°F.

Shillong—capital of Assam, is on the Khasi and Jaintia Hills. Altitude 4,980 ft. above sea level. Average temperature in midsummer rarely reaches 80°F. Nearest railway station is Pandu (68 miles).

Simla—is perched on the skirts of the lower Himalays at a height of 7,235 feet. It is reached by mountain railway which connects Kalka and Simla. Mean temperature is 55°F, and annual rainfall is 70". It is now the capital of Himachal Pradesh.

PLACES OF INTEREST IN INDIA

Agra—famous for Taj Mahal and Agra Fort. It contains all the glories of Mughal Empire, such as, Dewani Khas, Moti Masjid, Jasmine Tower, Dewani-i-am, also tomb of Akbar at Sikandra and Itmud-ud-Danla.

Amarnath—situated at a height of nearly 13,000 ft. in Kashmir, where thousands of Hindus make pilgrimage in August. There is a motor service from Srinagar upto Pahalgam (7,200 ft.). The cave is about 50 ft. high and 50 ft. deep, situated between two huge mountains known as Kailash and Bhaira. At the back of the cave are several ice stalagmites in the shape of *lingams*—the

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frozen image of gods Siva, Parvati, Kartik and Ganesh, all self-made images of ice.

Aurangabad—is situated 70 miles from Manmad on the Central Railway. It has world-renowned temples and monastic caves of Ellora and Ajanta. There is also the historical fort of Daulatabad, the Raoza which contains the tomb of the Mughal Emperor Aurangazeb and the magnificent tomb of Aurangazeb's wife, Bibi-ka-Muqbara.

Amritsar—is situated in the north-west of the Punjab at a distance of only sixteen miles from Wagah, the outpost of the Indo-Pakistan border. It is famous for the Golden Temple, the most sacred to the Sikhs, and the tank called the pool of immortality. The pool is enclosed by a wide marble-paved quadrangle, 204 ft. long, with an archway over it. In the centre of the pool is the Temple, a square building with marble inlaid walls and dome-shaped roof, under which shaded by a silken canopy lies *Granth Sahib*, the holy book of the Sikhs. About two furlongs from the Golden Temple is the world-famous Jalianwala Bagh.

Ajmer—a city of antiquity and celebrity. Ana Sagar Lake is famous for its picturesque surroundings. The place is famous for Darga Khwaja Sahib, the tomb of the famous Muslim saint Muin-ud-din Chishti. The shrine contains the large drums and candle-sticks taken by Akbar at the siege of Chitor and two mosques, one built by Akbar and the other by Shah Jahan. At seven miles' distance, there is Pushkar, the most sacred lake of India.

Bijapur—is the ancient city of the famous Adil Shahi dynasty. It is now in ruins and the gigantic structure called the Gol Gambuz contains a perfect whispering gallery.

Buddha Gaya—seven miles from Gaya, is the sacred Buddhist site of Buddha Gaya, where under a *bodhi-tree*, Buddha conquered Mara and attained Buddhahood. King Asoka erected a temple near the tree. The temple at Buddha Gaya consists of a main tower, raising to a height of 180 ft. in the form of a slender pyramid.

Bhubaneswar—the new capital of Orissa, contains the famous *Lingaraj Temple*, *Mukteswar Temple* and *Parasurameswar Temple*, and other temples, such as, *Bhagavati*, *Parvati*, *Anant Vasudeva*, etc. On the hills known as Udaigiri and Khandagiri, a few miles from Bhuvaneswar, are caves once occupied by Jain monks, containing remarkable carvings, the earliest of which date to the second century B.C.

Banaras—sacred city of the Hindus, contains numerous temples. The view of the ghats is magnificient. Close by is the famous Hindu University; five miles from the city is Saranath, where in the Mrigadava or Deer Park, Buddha first preached his doctrine.

Chidambaram—It is 151 miles from Madras on the Madras-Trichinopoly section of Southern Railway. The place is sanctified by the world-famous temple of Nataraja or Siva in his aspect of the cosmic dancer. The inner wall of the temple has four gopurams, two of which contain perfect sculptural representations of the 108 postures relating to Natya Sastra.

Chittorgarh—famous for the *Tower of Victory*—contains wonderful Rajput ruins. It is the old capital of Sisodhiya Rajputs,

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the proud descendants of the sun-god who were rulers of Udaipur. The Tower of Victory was built by Rana Kumbha in commemoration of his many victories over Mughal invaders. It lies on the direct railway route from Ratlam to Ajmer.

Delhi—capital of India since 1911, was the capital of seven Empires. Some of the famous relics are—Red Fort with Imperial Palace of Shah Jahan, two Audience Halls, Rangmahal, the Hamam, Pearl Mosque inside it, Jumma Masjid, Kutub Minar Ferozabad, Indraprastha, Tuglagabad, etc. Other places of interest are—tomb of Humayun, famous mosques and historic city walls.

Fatehpur Sikri—short distance of 24 miles from Agra ; founded by Akbar in A.D. 1569 in a lonely eminence on the spot where saint Salim Chisti foretold the birth of a son of Akbar. After Akbar's death, the city was deserted within fifty years of its foundation, the reason being lack of water. Interesting places are : Imposing pile of great mosques measuring 542 ft. east and 438 ft. north and south, the tomb of Saint Sheikh Salim Chisti, houses of Akbar's wives, Miriam and Jodhbhai. *Panch Mahals*—the building of five storeys, Hiran Minar, Buland Darwaza, the famous sand-stone chamber of *Diwani Khas*, etc. In the Pachisi Court, laid out in red sandstone squares, he used to play chess with the slave girls at each Court. This is the city of sandstone, the specimen of the finest Mughal architecture.

Gwalior—is situated 194 miles from Delhi on the Central Railway. It has long been famous for its grand and imposing Fort.

Humpi (or Vijayanagar)—The ruins of this ancient city covering an extent of about 10 sq. miles on the south bank of Tungabhadra river near Hospet railway station on the Guntakul-Hubli section of the Southern Railway, is a witness to the rise and fall of the forgotten Hindu Empire which is said to have been the finest and the greatest in South India. Humpi is the ruins of Vijayanagar, the ancient capital of Vijayanagar Empire. The ruins are virtually a vast open air museum of Hindu monuments in the Dravidian style of architecture.

Hardwar—It is situated at the place where the Ganges issues forth from the hills on its fertilizing career. *Hari-ki-Pari* is a place of worship, which is a footmark of Vishnu imprinted on a stone into the upper wall of the ghat.

Jaipur—the most typical Hindu city built of pink stone, was founded in 1728 by Sawai Jai Singh II. Its avenues and boulevards cut each other at right angles, dividing the city into straight blocks. There is also the famous observatory, built about 1718 by the Maharaja Sawai Jai Singh. *Hawa Mahal, Ram Niwas gardens, Albert Hall and Museum,* are the interesting places for visit. Seven miles from Jaipur is Amber, a deserted city with an old royal palace overlooking the lake at the entrance to a rocky mountain gorge where Rajput architecture can be seen at its best.

Jabalpur—616 miles from Bombay with an elevation of 1,362 ft. The Marble Rocks are situated 13 miles from Jabalpur. These rocks are magnesium limestone rocks over 100 ft. high. The finest impression of the rocks is to be got by moonlight.

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Kanyakumari—The temple of Kanyakumari (the Virgin Goddess) is situated at Cape Comorin. It is the *land's end* of India where Bay of Bengal, Arabian Sea and Indian Ocean meet. This is one of the most picturesque spots of India.

Patna—is the capital of Bihar and it spreads twelve miles along the Ganga. Things worth seeing at Patna are the huge beehive shaped Gola, 90 ft. high and 420 ft. at the base, which was built at the time of Warren Hastings for the granary; Khuda Buksh Oriental Library is famous for its rare collection of Arabic and Persian manuscripts; the ancient city of Pataliputra lies buried under Patna, which was once the capital of Chandragupta Maurya. It was also the capital of Asoka.

Madurai—was the capital of Pandiyan Kings and became famous in the 17th century under the Nayak kings. The huge temple of Madurai known as *Minakshi Temple* (Goddess with fish eyes) is the most famous of the South Indian temples and one of the finest edifices of Dravidian architecture. It is dedicated to Siva and his espouse Minakshi. The temple forms a parallelogram, 850 ft. by 750 ft. and is surrounded by nine gopurams, one of which is 150 ft. high. The most elaborate stone carving is found in the Hall of a Thousand Pillars. The other important buildings are all associated with the name of Tirumala Naik whose palace is the perfect specimen of secular architecture.

Kashmir—Altitude varies from 5,000 to 6,000 ft. It is 5,200 ft. with an area of 11 sq. miles; mean temperature in January and February is 25°F. Srinagar is now reached by motor road *via* Pathankot. Srinagar lies along the banks of Jhelum which is crossed by the seven bridges. Kashmir has beautiful Mughal gardens built by the Mughal Emperors of Delhi, such as, *Shalimar Gardens, Nishad Bag, Nasim Bag* and *Chashme Shahi.* Places worth seeing in Kashmir are Phalgam, 60 miles from Srinagar; Dal Lake; Amarnath—97 miles from Srinagar.

Lucknow—is the capital of Uttar Pradesh. The grandeur of the city dates from Asaf-ud-daula, the fourth Nawab. Lucknow is known as the city of gardens. Outstanding among its buildings are the great Imambara with a hall 162 ft. long and 54 ft. wide, the Husainabad Imambara, Rumi Darwaza, Chattar Manzil and the Wingfield Park.

Pushkar—is famous for its lake and fair which is held in October-November. The lake is regarded as most sacred in India and the temple of Brahma close to the lake is supposed to mark the spot where the incarnation of the god took place.

Nalanda—Nalanda University was founded in the epoch of the Gupta kings and became one of the largest universities of Asia. Hien Tsang, the well-known Chinese traveller who studied at the university in the 7th century, has left glowing accounts of its activities. It consisted of 10,000 scholars lodged in special hostels endowed by foreign kings. It flourished for 700 years until destroyed by fire by foreign invaders in the 12th century A.D.

Mahabalipuram—Also known as seven pagodas, on the coast of Bay of Bengal, 53 miles south of Madras. Monuments of Mahabalipuram

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are hewn out of solid rock—such as (1) Five Rathas, (2) Mahisasura Mandapa, (3) Krishna Mandapam, (4) Arjuna's Penance. These are the finest specimens of rock-cut and bas-relief figures in India.

Rameswaram—At the extreme south-eastern limit of Indian peninsula stands Rameswaram where the great Rama himself is believed to have offered worship to Siva to expiate the sin of having killed in battle Ravana, the ten-headed ruler of Lanka. Rameswaram is little over two miles from Madurai and can be reached by a small branch line off Pamban, on the Dhanushkadi route. The temple of Sri Ramanathaswamy dates back to the 15th century. The glory of the temple is in its corridors which extend to a total length of nearly 4,000 feet.

Saranath—is five miles outside Banaras. In the 'Deer Park' of Saranath, Gautama Buddha preached his First Sermon on Nirvana. The ruins of monastaries built more than 1,500 years ago, draw Buddhist pilgrims from all over the world. Here stands the famous Asoka Pillar of polished sandstone whose lion capital was adopted by the Republic of India as the State emblem.

Udaipur—is one of the most beautiful cities in India. The city is completely encircled by a bastioned wall to which there are five main gates or poles. It stands in a valley amid green hills on the banks of a large lake with little islands. On these rise from the water's edge marble palaces of pure white that glisten in the sunlight.

Tirukklukundram—This is also called the hill of the sacred kites. This is midway between Chingleput and Mahabalipuram. There is a small shrine on a hillock, about 500 ft. high. Every day, just before noon, two kites considered to be sacred birds visit the hillock and eat from the hands of a priest. There is a belief that the birds are two saints who rest on their daily flight between Banaras and Rameswaram.

Tiruchirapalli—Till recently known as Trichinopoly, it is 213 miles from Madras. The place has a famous rock Temple and also Teppakulam, a large tank with a mandapam in the middle.

Tanjore—On the main line of the metre gauge section of the Southern Railway lies Tanjore, the last capital of the Chola Dynasty. The place is famous for its great Sri Brihadiswara Temple, known throughout the world for its massive architectural excellence.

ARCHITECTURAL & HISTORICAL LANDMARKS HINDU & BUDDHIST

Ajanta Frescoes—famous frescoes in the Buddhist caves of Ajanta, a village in Hyderabad State. It is reached by motor from Jalgaon Station on Western Ry.—37 miles from the station. The caves of Ajanta consist of 24 monasteries and 5 temples, some of which are 2000 years old. They are excavated on a wall of almost perpendicular rock, 259 ft. high, sweeping round in a hollow circle and extending a third of a mile from east to west. These caves are situated in the horse-shoe valley. These frescoes are now

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ranked among the masterpieces of the world's art. The frescoes at Ajanta may be divided into narrative scenes, portraiture and decoration and illustrations of the life of Buddha.

Ambar Palace—In the deserted capital of Jaipur, this Palace is considered to include the finest specimen of Rajput architecture.

Barhut—is in Central India. The sculptures on the stone railing surrounding the Barhut stupa (second century B.C.) represent, with most careful exactitude, the episodes in the life of Buddha and in his former lives.

Buddhist cave at Karli—one of the most famous of rock-cut temples. It is the largest and the most harmonious. It dates from the first century B.C. It is 124 ft. long and 45 ft. wide internally.

Bodh-Gaya Temple—The temple is built on the site of a shrine erected by the Emperor Asoka. It commemorates the moment when Gautama meditating under the trees of Bodhi attained enlightenment and quality of Buddha after seven years of mental conflict and penance. The tower of the temple of Bodh-Gaya rises to the height of 180 feet.

Black Pagoda—Close to the sea-coast, north of Puri, stands the 700-year-old Konark temple. Legend runs that the Sun-god was once seen here rising out of the sea in his golden chariot. Where his shadow fell, devotees endeavoured to build a temple in the shape of the god's chariot, complete with twenty-four wheels and seven horses. Though now partly in ruins, their symphony in stone still ranks as one of India's greatest architectural splendours. 24 miles out of Puri, the road leading to Bhubaneswar branches off at Pipli towards Konark, which lies 29 miles away.

Belur Temple—known as Chenna Kesava Temple, is situated in Mysore State. The temple is one of those exquisite specimens of Hoysala architecture, built 1117 years ago by the munificence of the Hoysala King, Vishnuvardhana. Ferguson says—'There are many buildings in India which are unsurpassed for delicacy of detail by any in the world, but the temple of Belur surpasses even these for freedom of handling and richness of fancy.'

Chitore Fort—symbolises the spirit of bravery and heroism of Gohilward and Sisodia Kings of Mewar. Chitore was the capital of Gohilward and Sisodia King of Mewar from the 8th to the 16th century. The fort presents a vast panorama of temples, imposing palaces and towers which are now mostly in ruins. The most famous is the Tower of Victory which was built by Rana Kumbha to commemorate his victory over Sultan Mohammad Khilji of Malwa in 1440.

Dilwara Temples—Near Mount Abu, the principal hill station of Rajasthan, are the wonderful Dilwara Temples. Five in number, they date from the 11th, 12th and 13th centuries are built entirely of marble. The carvings which decorate the interior walls and pillars of the temples are fantastically lavish, yet the general impression is one of perfect harmony. The Temples are—the Vimala Shah, built in 1032 and the temple of the two brothers Vastupala and Tejpala, built between 1197 and 1247.

Elephanta Caves—The Elephanta Island is about 6½ miles north-east of Apollo Bunder in Bombay harbour. There are seven

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caves in all, but the main cave marked No. 2 which contains the Siva shrine is the most important and contains the sculptured panels. The great three-faced idol representing Trimurti, is the most striking among the sculptures in the caves.

Ellora Caves—These caves can be conveniently reached from Aurangabad on Western Railway and it is 71 miles from Manmad. The caves lie at a distance of 14 miles from Aurangabad. Ellora cave temples, 34 in number, are perhaps the largest and most varried in India. There are three classes of caves—Hindus, Buddhist and Jain. Excavated in the scarp of a large rocky plateau, they are remarkable memorials of these great faiths. The most marvellous of all is the stupendous rock-cut temple of Kailasa, elaborately carved inside and outside. Hewn entirely out of solid rock, with its massive pillars and colonades, intricate galleries, painted ceilings and huge sculptures, Kailasa is one of the world's wonders.

Gwalior Fort—is one of the most impressive strongholds of mediæval India. The ascent to the fortress is like that of some fabled palace of the Arabian Nights. Of the many palaces within the walls, the most splendid is that of Man Singh.

Golden Temple—At Amritsar, the famous Sikh Temple stands on a raised plinth, 65 ft. square in the centre of the tank and surrounded by verandas.

Gomateswara—Near the town of Sravana Belgola in the State of Mysore, is the giant figure of Gomateswara, the Jain sage. The figure is 57 ft. statue and is carved out of a single stone at the top of a hill. The image is probably 2,000 years old.

Iron Pillar—Only a few yards from Katub Minar stands the famous Iron Pillar of Chandra Varman, Hindu King of Pushkaran. It is a solid shaft of wrought iron, about 16 inches in diameter and 23 feet 8 inches in height. Purity of iron (99.97 p.c.) accounts for the absence of rust, despite its exposure to the sun and rain for over 1500 years.

Mahabalipuram—or Seven Pagodas, is situated on the south coast of Madras. Its temples are bas-reliefs and are cut from living rocks. The most famous is the '*Descent of the Ganges*'. This giant image dating from the seventh centuary is cut in a granite rock, 90 ft. long and 43 ft. high. Another famous sculpture is '*Vishnu reclining on the snake Ananta.*' "*Arjuna's Penance,*" another bas-relief, is the largest bas-relief in the world.

Meenakshi Temple—Madurai is remarkable for its most picturesque temple, the Meenakshi Temple with its magnificent gopurams. The Great Temple dedicated to the Goddess Meenakshi forms a parallelogram, 850 ft. by 750 ft. and is surrounded by nine gopurams, one of which is 150 ft. high. One of its principal structures is the Hall of thousand pillars in which groups of figures are carved from single stones.

Sanchi Tope—famous Buddhist stupa in Bhopal, 25 miles from Bhopal. Stupa is a hemispherical monument of bricks or stones. Sanchi Stupa is one of the oldest (third-first century B.C., and best preserved Stupas of India. Stuppa stands on the top of a small hill and enclosed by the finest and oldest stone railing

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in India. The stupa is 120 ft. in diameter and 56 ft. high. The most striking features of the Stupa are the gates which face four cardinal points and measure 28 ft. 5 in. to the top of the third architecture and are profusely carved with scenes from Jataka stories. Near the Stupa is the new memorial, erected to preserve the remains of the famous disciples of Buddha—Sariputta and Mangalana.

Sirguya Frescoes—are the earliest dateable Indian paintings. These are a group of Buddhist frescoes (100 B.C.) on the walls of a cave in Sirguya in Madhya Pradesh.

Tower of Victory, Chitore—a famous Hindu monument raised by Rana Kumbha in 1450 to commemorate his victory over the combined armies of Malwa and Guzarat. It consists of nine stories and is 122 ft. high.

Temples of Bhubaneswar—Near Puri, most famous of these are *Rajrani* and *Lingaraj* Temples. Rajrani Temple erected in the 11th century, is a gigantic tower covered with statues and surmounted by receding layers of stones—the whole inward-curving tower ending in a great circular crown and a spire. Lingaraj Temple is the most perfect example of north Indian architecture.

Kajuraho Temples—At Kajuraho in Bundelkhand are grouped about thirty temples dedicated to Siva, Vishnu or Jina. They date from about 950 to 1050. These temples are unrivalled for profusion of ornate detail. In the Kandarya Mahadeva temple, the largest of the group, the details of bewildering complexity are massed together to form a perfectly balanced unity.

Saranath—At Banaras, there is the great Buddhist Stupa, a stupendous stone structure, 104 ft. in height and 93 ft. in diameter. It commemorates the fact that here Gautama Buddha preached his doctrine to his first five disciples.

Temple of Sri Rangam—Two miles north of Tiruchirapalli, on an island formed by the bifurcation of the river Cauvery is Srirangam, famous for the temple of Vishnu, which contains a hall of thousand columns and sacred shrine of Ranganathaswami.

Rameswaram Temple—The temple of Rameswaram is probably the most perfect specimen of art in the Dravidian style. The holy town of Rameswaram is built on an island in Palk Straits. The great temple is in the form of a quadrangular enclosure, 650 ft. broad by 1,000 ft. long. Its glory lies in its vast pillared corridors which extend to a length of nearly 4,000 feet.

MUSLIM

Fatehpur Sikri—23 miles from Agra stands the city of palaces built of red sand-stone by Akbar in 1569-1584. Most important piece of art is Buland Darwaja, 176 ft. high, built in commemoration of the conquest of Khandesh. Though the city was abandoned for lack of adequate water supply, what remains of its deserted glory is enough to testify to the perfection which Indo-Muslim architecture had attained in the reign of Akbar. Fatehpur Sikri stands authentic witness of Akbar's splendid effort to achieve a synthesis between Hindu and Muslim cultures.

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Gol Gambuz, Bijapur—is the 2nd largest dome in the world. This has a floor area of 18,110 sq. ft. This is the largest space covered by any single dome, second largest being that of Pantheon at Rome which has a floor area of 15,833 sq. feet. If the pendentives are also taken into account, the Gol Gambuz is the greatest domed roof in the world too. It was built in 1656 by Sultan Mohamed Adil Shah to be his last resting place. The 11 ft. wide world-famous whispering gallery hangs out in the interior of the building, 109 ft. 6 ins. above the floor. The surface measurement of the dome including four octagonal towers is 205 sq. ft. and the height of the building from the base to the apex of the dome is 198 ft. 6 in. The exterior diameter measures 144 ft., whilst interior diameter is 134 ft. 5 in.

Kutab Minar (238 ft. high), Delhi—is one of the masterpieces of Indian technology and art. It is the highest stone tower in India. It was completed by Kutab-ud-din-Aibak in 1199 and further developed by Iltutmish in 1229. It is the first outstanding structure in the Islamic style. It is made of red stone and marble. It has five storeys separated by projecting balconies.

The Fort, Agra—Originally built by Akbar, the Fort saw many additions in the reign of the great builder, Shah Jahan. Its walls, 70 ft. high with octagonal towers and crenellated ramparts, enclose many relics of old splendour, great courtyards, gateways, audience halls, mosques and royal apartments.

Red Fort, Delhi—The walls of Red Fort enclose the former great imperial palace of Shah Jahan. The wonders of Red Fort recall the pomp and pageantry, the wealth and magnificence of Mughal times. Built by the emperor Shah Jahan between 1639-1648, the fort is famous for its *Diwan-i-khas, Pearl Mosque*, etc.

Jama Masjid—Known as India's finest and biggest mosque, Jama Masjid was built by the Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan at Delhi during the period 1650-58. The masjid raised on a lofty basement, is 201 feet in length by 120 feet and is flanked by two minarets of 130 ft. high.

Mausoleum of Sher Shah, Sasaram—is a gigantic solid and masculine example of Moslem architecture, standing in the middle of a large tank. 350 miles from Calcutta by Grand Trunk Road, Sasaram stands on the left bank of the Sone river.

Taj Mahal, Agra—Most famous tomb built by Shah Jahan in memory of his beloved wife—rises with its slender minarets in the midst of magnificent gardens. It is the result of collaboration between Indian, Turkish and European artists. The height of the dome is about 230 feet.

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THE CALENDAR

INDIAN CALENDAR—The *Bikram or Samvat* era is most widely used, specially in northern India, Rajasthan, Gujarat and is believed to have been established by Vikramaditya, king of Ujjain, to commemorate his victory over Saka kings. But there is dispute over the identity of Vikramaditya, as there are so many kings bearing this name. It commenced on February 23, 57 B.C. Samvat is a lunisolar year.

The *Saka* or *Sakabda* era is used in some parts of South India. There is an historical dispute as to the origin of this era. It is said to date from the Saka king, Salibahana or it begins with the coronation of the Kushan king Kaniska, and dates from 3rd March, 78 A.D.

Bengali Year was originally a reckoning for agricultural and revenue purposes, instituted at the time of Emperor Akbar. In A.D. 1555-6 corresponding to Hijri 962-3, solar computation was introduced in the Muslim era Hijri, which became the *Fasli* or harvest era of northern India and was adopted as the current official era in Bengal.

Other Eras—The *Buddha era* from 543 B.C. and *Chaitanya era* from 1407 A.D.

Kali Yuga—The oldest era of India is *Kali Yuga*. The Kali Yuga began on the 18th Feb., 3102 B.C. Thus the Kali Yuga was 5060 in 1958.

India's National Calendar—Saka Year—The Government of India have adopted a uniform National Calendar, based on the Saka era, for civil purposes. This calendar has been adopted with effect from March 22, 1957 corresponding to Chaitra 1, 1879 Saka.

The pre-eminence of the Saka era derives from the fact that it was the earliest to be introduced in India by the Saka ruling powers and was used exclusively by the Sakadvipi Brahmins (the astrologer caste) for calendar-making and for casting horoscopes since 1st century A. D. This was done on the basis of *Siddhantic* (scientific) astronomy evolved from old Indian calendar conceptions, which were put on a scientific basis by blending them with astronomical conceptions prevalent in the West in the 3rd century. The Saka era is 78 years behind the Christian era. The Saka Year commences on the first of lunar Chaitra or the first of Solar Vaisakha in different parts of India.

A normal year consists of 365 days, while a leap year has 366 days. After adding 78 to the Saka era if the sum is divisible by 4, then it is a leap year. But when the sum becomes a multiple of 100, it would be a leap year only when it is divisible by 400, otherwise it would be a common year.

Chaitra is the first month of the year. It consists of 30 days in the common years and 31 days in a leap year. The five months following the month of Chaitra consist of 31 days each and the last six months all have 30 days. The dates of the reformed Indian

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Calendar has thus a permanent correspondence with the dates of the present Gregorian Calendar, the corresponding dates being Chaitra 1, March 22 in a common year and March 21 in a leap year; Vaisakha 1, April 21; Jaistha 1, May 22; Asada 1, June 22; Sravana 1, July 23; Bhadra 1, August 23; Asvina 1, September 23; Kartika 1, October 23; Agrahayan 1, November 22; Pausa 1, December 22; Magha 1, January 21; and Phalguna 1, February 20.

The Indian season would thus be permanently fixed with respect to the reformed calendar as follows—*Grishma* (Summer) Vaisakha and Jyastha; *Varsa* (Rains) Asada and Sravana; *Sarat* (Autumn) Bhadra and Asvina; *Hemanta* (late Autumn) Kartika and Agrahayana; *Sisira* (Winter) Pausa and Magha; *Vasanta* (Spring) Phalguna and Chaitra.

MAHOMEDAN CALENDAR—The Mahomedan era is based on *Hijra* or flight of Mahomed from Mecca to Medina. The first day of the era is not the actual date of flight but 16th July, 622 A.D. *Hijra* is a purely lunar year consisting of 12 months containing in alternate sequence 30 or 29 days, with the intercalation of one day at the end of the 12th month at stated intervals in each cycle of 30 years, the object of the intercalation being to reconcile the date of the first of month with the date of the actual new moon. The mean length of *Hijra* Year is 354 days 8 hours and 48 minutes and the period of mean lunation is 29 days 12 hours 44 minutes.

MODERN CALENDAR—The Roman Calendar had at first 10 months and 304 days, each month being divided into Kalends, Nones and Ides. The Julian calendar introduced 45 B.C. by Julius Caesar added 66 days with an extra day in February every 4th year, thus giving what we now call Leap Year. This Calendar was revised by Pope Gregory XIII (1502-85) who declared that 5 Oct. 1582 should be called 15 Oct., thus losing 10 days and also that a century should not be a Leap Year unless exactly divisible by 400, hence 1900 was not a Leap Year but 2000 will be. This Gregorian calendar has been adopted almost everywhere.

JEWISH CALENDAR—Is luni-solar, that is to say, the year is solar and months are lunar. In a cycle of 19 years the 1st, 2nd, 4th, 5th, 7th, 9th, 19th, 12th, 13th, 15th, 16th and 18th year have 12 months and the remaining years 13 months of 29 or 30 days each. The length of the ordinary year may be 353, 354 or 355 days and that of the leap year 383, 384 or over 385 days; thus the mean length of the year over a 19-year cycle is just over 365 days. The years are reckoned from the creation of the world, the date of which is taken to be 3760 B.C. Thus the year 1938 A.D. is A.M. (*Anna Mundi*) 5698-99. The day begins at sunset for the purpose of observing the Sabbath and the various feasts and fasts. The time is 2 hours 21 minutes in advance of Greenwich time, being that of meridian of Jerusalam.

ZOROASTRIAN CALENDAR—Is employed by Zoroastrians in India and Iran which began in June 16, 632 A.D.

BUDDHIST CALENDAR—It is reckoned from the death of Buddha in 543 B.C. (the actual date being 487 B.C). The Buddhist year begins from Vaisakhi Purnima. Buddha was born on the

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Baisakhi full moon day, he took his seat under Bodhi tree at Gaya on full moon day to attain wisdom. It was on the full moon day again that he left the world.

HINDU CALENDAR—Hindus have employed luni-solar cycles made by the combination of solar years and lunar years so treated as to keep the beginning of the lunar year near that of the solar year. In some parts of India solar years are used, while in other parts lunar is followed.

The solar year is divided into 12 months in accordance with the successive *Sankrantis* or entrances of the Sun into the sidereal signs of zodiac. The names of the signs are as follows :—

Mesha, the ram (Aries).
Vrishabha, the bull (Taurus).
Mithuna, the pair (Gemini).
Karkata, the crab (Cancer).
Singha, the lion (Leo).
Kanya, the maiden (Virgo).
Tula, the scale (Libra).
Vrischika, the scorpion (Scorpio).
Dhanus, the bow (Sagittarius).
Makara, the sea monster (Capricorns).
Kumbha, the water pot (Acquarius).
Mina, the fishes (Pisces).

But these are also known in some parts by another set of names preserving connection with lunar months—*Chaitra, Vaisakha, Jaistha, Ashara, Sravana, Bhadra, Asvina, Kartika, Margasirsa* or *Agrahayan, Pausa, Magha* and *Phalguna.*

The astronomical solar month runs from the moment of one *Sankranti* of the sun to the moment of the next *Sankranti* and as the signs of the Hindu zodiac are all of equal length, 30 degrees, while the speed of the sun varies according to the time of the year, the length of the month is variable.

The days of solar month begin with sun-rise. The days are named as follows : *Ravivara*, the day of sun (Sunday); *Somvara*, the day of the moon (Monday) ; *Mangalvara*, the day of the Mars (Tuesday) ; *Budhvara*, the day of Mercury (Wednesday) ; *Brihaspativara*, the day of Jupiter (Thursday); *Sukravara*, the day of Venus (Friday) ; *Sanivara*, the day of Saturn (Saturday).

The lunar year consists of primary 12 lunar months. It is of two principal varieties according as it begins with a certain day in the month of Chaitra or with the corresponding day in Kartika. The present names of the lunar months were derived from 12 out of the 27 Nakshatras, supposed to be companions of the Moon during 12 full-moon nights.

NAMES OF MONTHS—January was named from *Janus*, god who presided over the beginning of everything. February from *Februa*, a festival of purification held in that month by the Romans. *Maritus* is the Mars, who was originally a god of agriculture, his month being the one when crops are ordinarily planted. The origin of April is not known. May is named from *Maia*, the mother of Roman god Mercury. June is derived from *Juno*, the goddess of women and of marriage. July was formerly called quintilius from *quintus*, the fifth, but when Julius Cæsar reformed the calendar, he changed the month's name to Julius in his own honour : Julius became July in English. August was originally called sextilis, after-

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wards was named August from the Emperor *Augustus*. Those from September to December are so called from the numbers *Septem*, 'seven', *Octo*., 'eight', *November*, 'nine' and *December*, 'ten'.

YEAR—Unit of time is marked by the revolution of the earth in its orbit round the sun. The *Solar Year* is 365 days 5 hours, 48 minutes 49·7 seconds. *Calendar Year* consists of 365 days, but a year the date of which is divisible by 4 without remainder is called *Leap Year* and consists of 366 days, one day being added to the month of February. The last year of a century is not leap year unless its number is divisible by 400, i.e., the years 1800 and 1900 had only 365 days. *Tropical Year* is the time that earth takes to revolve round the Sun from equinox to equinox or 365.2422 mean solar days. *Sidereal Year* in which the observation is made on a star is 365 days, 6 hrs. 9 mins. 9 secs.

TIME—Measurement of time is based on the time taken by earth to rotate on its axis (*day*) ; by moon to revolve round the earth (*month*) ; and by the earth to revolve round the sun (*year*). Day starts at midnight and is divided into 24 hours of 60 minutes, each of 60 seconds. The hours are counted from midnight up to 12 at noon and these hours are designated A.M. and again from noon up to 12 at midnight, which hours are designated P.M. The 24-hour reckoning, however, ignores A.M. and P.M. and the hours are numbered 0 to 23 from midnight to midnight.

Different ways of telling time—The usual division of the day into "A.M." (*ante meridian*) and "P.M." (*post meridian*) groups of 12 hours each has given way for same purposes to the "24-hour" day in many countries. On the "24-hour" clock the hour begins with zero at midnight and runs to 23 ; thus 1-30 P.M. is called 13-30 o'clock, it is simpler than the 12-hour system and makes calculation easier, and so on. This system is in general use on railway systems. Since astronomers and navigators use it for tables and records.

On ship board varieties of time are used. "*Greenwich time*" or time corresponding to that at Greenwich, England, is kept by an accurate chronometer for use in determining the ship's position. The ship's routine is, however, governed by "*watches*" and "*bells*." The day is divided into six "watches", commencing at noon and each watch is divided into eight parts marked by "bells." One half an hour after a watch begins, "one bell" is struck. Half an hour later, or one hour after the commencement of watch, "two bells" strike, and so on upto "eight bells" when the watch changes and the bells strike all over again from one to eight.

Astronomers usually use *sidereal time*, which is fixed by observing the transits of the stars. A *sidereal day* is the period of one rotation of the earth upon its axis. It starts at noon and contains 24 hours 56 minutes and 4 seconds of mean solar time. A *sidereal year* contains 366¼ sidereal days.

Local Time—When the system of local time is used, it is 12 o'clock (noon) at any region where the sun is at its highest point in the sky, and shadows are cast in a line extending north and south.

Greenwich Mean Time—The International Meridian Conference held in 1884 established the meridian passing through Greenwich,

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England, as the prime meridian, from which the world's time was to be reckoned. The world is considered as being divided into 24 zones each of 15° of arc, or one hour in time apart. The meridian of Greenwich (0°) extends through the centre of the initial zone and the zones to the eastward are numbered from 1 to 12 with the prefix 'minus' indicating the number of hours to be subtracted to obtain *Greenwich time*. The zones to the westward are similarly numbered, but prefixed 'plus' showing the number of hours that must be added to get Greenwich time.

Time Zones—The 15 degree measurement divides Europe into three time-zones—*Greenwich, Mid-European* (one hour faster), *East European* (2 hours faster). United States and Canada are divided into five time-zones—*Atlantic, Eastern, Central, Mountain* and *Pacific.*

Examples of Zone System :—

Fast on Greenwich Time

12 hrs.	F ..	Fiji, New Zealand.
9½ hrs.	F ..	South Australia.
9 hrs.	F ..	Manchuria, Japan, Korea.
8 hrs.	F ..	East China, Philippine Islands, West Australia, Indo-China, Formosa.
7½ hrs.	F ..	Malaya, Singapur, Java.
6½ hrs.	F ..	Burma, Andaman & Nicobar Islands.
6 hrs.	F ..	East Pakistan.
5½ hrs.	F ..	India, Ceylon.
4½ hrs.	F ..	West Pakistan.
3½ hrs.	F ..	Iran.
2 hrs.	F ..	(*East European*) Turkey, Greece, Finland, Egypt, Israel, Syria, South Africa.
1 hr.	F ..	(*Mid. European*) Sweden, Norway, Netherlands, Germany, France, *Greenwich* .. Great Britain, Ireland, Portugal, Algeria, Morocco, etc.

Slow on Greenwich Time

1 hr.	S ..	Iceland.
3 hrs.	S ..	Greenland, Uruguay, Argentina.
4 hrs.	S ..	(*Atlantic*) Canada, Central Brazil, Bolivia, Chile.
5 hrs.	S ..	(*Eastern*) E. States of U. S. A., Cuba, Panama, Colombia, Equador.
6 hrs.	..	Central parts of U. S. A., part of Mexico, etc.
7 hrs.	S ..	(*Mountain*) Canada from 102°W to 120°W, Mountain States of U. S. A., part of Mexico.
8 hrs.	S ..	(*Pacific*) Canada West of 120°W, Western States of U. S. A.
11 hrs.	S ..	Aleutian Is., West Coast Alaska, Samoa, Midway Islands.

Summer Time or Daylight Saving Time—Is a device to make more sunlight hours available for business, industry, leisure by setting all clocks forward one hour during summer, when the sun rises early, thus saving evening use of artificial light. This device was first used as national economy during World War I.

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International Date Line—Is an imaginary line extending north and south through Pacific Ocean, and is the point at which the traveller must add or subtract a day from the calendar. On a journey westward across the Pacific, he must add a day (for example, by changing Monday, the 17th to Tuesday, the 18th) ; when travelling eastward, he is required to set the date back one day, otherwise he will not be in accord with the local date when he returns to his starting place after making trip round the world.

Indian Standard Time—The Indian Standard Time which is 5½ hours ahead of Greenwich Mean Time was first adopted on 1st January 1906. It was based on the mean time of 82½°E longitude which passes through Banaras and Cocanada. Though it was used by Raliways and Posts and Telegraphs Offices, Calcutta had its own time 24 minutes ahead of it. During World War II, a uniform time, 6½ hours ahead of Greenwich time was adopted in India. India now observes Indian Standard Time, which is 5½ hours ahead of Greenwich.

Longest and Shortest days—Longest day is the day on which the sun attains its greatest distance from the equator, north or south, accordingly as the place is in the northern and southern hemisphere. In other words, it is the day of the calendar on which a Solstice falls. This generally falls on June 21. Similar considerations apply to the shortest day of the year which falls on December 22. or the day of the Winter Solistice.

Dog Days—The hottest period of the year in the N. Hemisphere, generally reckoned now from 3 July to 15 August. They are generally associated with the influence of Sirius, the 'dog star'. They were regarded by the ancients as the most unhealthy period of the year, and as being the direct cause of madness among dogs.

HOLIDAYS

Hindu Festival—*Dewali*—A festival of lights held in October-November. The festival is celebrated by means of illuminations and fireworks. This festival is held to welcome *Lakshmi*, the goddess of wealth. In some States, Hindu merchants begin their fresh account books. The legend says that its celebration began with the coronation of King Rama, after victorious return from exile.

Durga Puja—A national festival in Bengal. The celebration signifies the triumph of good over evil and the subjection of animal passions by human beings. It is also symbolical of womanhood's strength and power to combat all forms of reaction. According to *Puranas*, a demon, *Mahisasura*, was threatening gods and men. Durga, the embodiment of Divine Power, took human form and bearing weapons in her ten hands slew the demon. Hence the form in which the goddess is worshipped is that of a warlike figure having ten arms and riding astride a lion. The goddess descends from her heavenly home, the Kailash, to visit her children on earth three days every year, accompanied by her two sons, *Kartik*, a great warrior, and *Ganesh*, the God of Prosperity and two daughters, *Lakshmi*, the Goddess of Wealth and *Saraswati*, the Goddess of Learning. On the fourth day, the immersion ceremony

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takes place and the image of the Goddess is consigned to the waters. The tradition says that on the last day, *Ramchandra* of Ramayana offered special prayers to the Goddess and thus gained victory over Ravana, the Demon King of Lanka (Ceylon). (*see also Dussera*).

Dussera—It is a great festival of northern India ; it usually takes place in the month of September or October. The festival takes place for nine nights known as *Navaratri*. Each of the first nine nights of this festival is dedicated two different aspects of the goddess *Durga*. The *Durga puja* has its origin in epic times when *Rama* invoked the help of *Durga* against the Demon King *Ravana*. The tenth day of the festival is the culminating point when colossal paste-board effigies of the principal demons of the *Ramayana*— the ten-headed *Ravana*, *Meghnada* and *Kumbhakarna*, are erected. These are packed with crackers and explosives. The festivities end with Rama shooting fiery arrows into the effigies, exploding them to symbolise the trumph of the good over evil.

Ganesh Chaturthi—A great Hindu festival of the Western India generally takes place in September in honour of Hindu God *Ganesh* who is represented with four hands and an elephant's head. This festival is also known as *Ganapaty Day*.

Holi—Hindu festival in March. It marks the coming of the spring. The festival in general is held in honour of *krishna*. The day is celebrated in the greatest merriment and fun and coloured waters are thrown over relatives and other people. It is a great festival of northern India.

Janmastami—The birth day of Sri Krishna held in August-September. It is celebrated at midnight.

Saraswati Puja—Usually takes place in the month of Magh (January-February) on the fifth day (*Panchami*) of the new moon. This day, according to Hindus, heralds the advent of spring. *Saraswati* is the Goddess of Learning.

Sivaratri—A festival in honour of the Hindu God *Siva*, one of the Hindu Trinity. It takes place in the month of February-March.

Christian Festival—*All Fools' day*—The first day of April, when, from centuries throughout the Christendom it has been customary to place irresponsible tricks on one's neighbours.

All Souls' Day—Day of prayer for souls of the dead.

Arbor day—Annual tree planting day is generally observed throughout U.S.A., in parts of Canada and Great Britain.

Bank Holiday—In Great Britain a secular day when by law banks are closed, and parties are exempt from presentment or payment of negotiable paper.

Candlemas day—In its ecclesiastical meaning Candlemas is the feast of purification of the *Virgin Mary* and is observed on February 2. This festival is strictly kept by Roman Catholic Church.

Christmas—Meaning Christ's Mass, is applied to the festival commemorating the birth of Christ celebrated on December 25. The exact date of Christ's birth is unknown. January 6 and December 28, however, were commonly chosen in the 4th century. The general adoption of December 25, first in the west and a little later in the east, dates from the 5th century.

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Easter—Chief Christian, feast, anniversary of resurrection of Jesus Christ. Falls between March 22 and April 25 inclusive of.

Good Friday—The Friday before Easter Sunday, celebrated in commemoration of the crucifixion of *Jesus*.

Holloween—The name of the popular, boisterous autumn celebration means 'holy eve', the occasion being the eve of 'All Hallows' or 'All-Saints' Day', November 1. It has the Pagan origin.

Lent—A word from the Anglo-Saxon *eencten* meaning "springtime". It is employed to denote the forty days preceding Easter, the period observed in the Catholic Church as a fast.

St. Valentine's day—A festival which falls on February 14. The origin of the observance of this day is uncertain. Among the many interesting folk customs of mediaeval France and England, was a gathering of young people on St. Valentine's eve. 'Valentine' means sweet-heart.

Moslem Festival—*Akhiri-Chahar Sumbha*—Held on the Wednesday of Safar, when Mahomed recovered a little in his last illness and bathed for the last time.

Id-uz-Zuha or Bakr-id—This day commemorates are sacrifice of *Abraham*. According to Islam, Abraham, on being ordered by God to offer his son Ismael as a sacrifice, blind-folded himself and carried out the divine instructions. On removing the cloth, however, he found his son by his side and a ram slain on the altar. Both the father and the son praised God who commended Abraham's implict trust in Him.

Mohurrum—It is a ten-day period of mourning for Shia Muslims. They commemorate the martyrdom of *Imam Hussain*, the Prophet Mohammad's grandson. Hussain, the rightful heir to the Caliphate waged war against Yazid, the nominated Caliph at Damascus. The two armies met on the battle-field of Karbala where Imam Hussain and his followers and family were put to death. A waterless fast is observed. Tazias, which are replicas of the martyr's tomb at Karbala, are carried in procession and buried.

Ramzan and Id-ul-fitr—Ramzan is the ninth month of the Moslem lunar year and is holy, because the Quoran was revealed in that month. The fast is ordained in a magnificent passage of the Quoran. The fast springs from Quoranic instructions for the better communion with God whom all men must honour and worship and that those instructions are obeyed by the faithful with the greatest devotion and loyalty. The period begins with the first sight of the new moon of the month or if the day be overclouded and the moon invisible, on the completion of the thirty days from the previous moon. Each day's fasting must begin so soon as daybreak permits a white thread to be discerned from a black thread and it continues till sunset.

Sabi-barat—(night of allotment)—Held on the 16th Saaban, when it is supposed that human deeds are measured and their fate is dispensad according to their deeds.

Buddhist Festival—*Ashada Purnima*—is in commemoration of the first sermon of Buddha attaining Mahaparinirvan in Kosi.

Full Moon of Vaisakha—Is the sacred day in the Buddhist calendar. On this day, under the spreading emeraid canopy of the *Sal* tree in the beautiful gardens of Lumbini in Nepal was born

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of queen Maya, Prince Siddhartha, *the Buddha* to be. It was on another Vaisakha Purnima day, Buddha when attained "Bodhi" or enlightment under a Bodhi Tree at Gaya. On the third Vaisakha Purnima, eighty years after the first, Buddha attained Mahaparinirvan in Kosi.

ASTRONOMICAL DATA

SOLAR SYSTEM—The Solar system is a unit of the universe, consisting of the sun, the nine major planets, their satellites, the asteroids or minor planets, comets, meteors and certain aggregates of small particles known as zodiacal light. These are all held in their places by the pull of the sun. They revolve round the sun in definite orbits. In the solar system there are also hundreds of comets, the strange hevenly bodies that have tails streaming out from them. There are too, great swarms of meteors ; most of them no bigger than grains of sand ; many meteors are pulled to the earth each day. They become white hot when they fall through the air. The small ones are called shooting stars. There is only one true star in the solar system—the sun itself. All other stars are far beyond the outermost planet.

Planets of the Solar System

	Diameter (in miles)	Distance from sun (in millions of miles).	Year time needed for journey around the sun	Day. (time needed in turning on axis)	Moons
Murcury	3,000	36	88 days	88 days	0
Venus	7,600	67	225 days	30 days (?)	0
Earth	7,900	93	365¼ days	23 hr. 56 m.	1
Mars	4,200	142	687 days	24 hr. 37 m.	2
Jupiter	87,000	483	12 yrs.	9 hr. 50 m.	12
Saturn	71,500	886	29½ yrs.	10 hr. 14 m.	9
Uranus	29,500	1,783	84 yrs.	10 hr. 48 m.	5
Neptune	26,800	2,791	165 yrs.	15 hr. 48 m.	2
Pluto	3,600	3,671	248 yrs.	6½ days	0

SUN—There are countless millions of far-distant self-luminous gaseous bodies called stars and each one is in itself a sun. Our sun is a star and is the centre of the solar system and the closest star to the earth. It appears brighter and larger than any other stars because of its comparative nearness—a distance of 93,000,000 miles. The sun is too hot to be solid, it is a huge ball of gases that are so hot that they give off light. The sun has also a halo around it. It is called the corona. By the force of its gravitational attraction, the sun keeps the planets in their regular orbits and pulls them with their orbits through space at the rate of about 12 miles per second.

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Isolated dark areas in the sun, first observed telescopically by Galileo, are called sun-spots. Great storms called sunspots sometimes rage on the surface of the sun. Sunspots look dark, but they are not really dark. They look dark merely because the rest of the sun is so much brighter.

EARTH—is one of the sun's family of planets. It travels around the sun just as all the other planets do. It takes the earth a year to make its journey around the sun. The travelling of the earth around the sun helps to cause seasons. As the earth travels round the sun, it spins like a top. It spins around an imaginary line which we call its axis. North Pole is at one end of this axis. The South Pole is at the other. The spinning of the earth causes day and night. The earth's axis is tilted to go. As it spins, earth is like a top that is leaning a little in one side. The tilt-circle around the earth half-way between the North and the South Poles. It is called the equator. The earth is an almost perfect ball. It is a little flattened at the poles. It measures 24,902 miles at the equator. It measures 24,860 miles around through the poles. More than two-thirds of the earth's surface is covered with water.

MOON—is the earth's nearest neighbour. It is only 240,000 miles away from our planet. The moon does not give off light of its own as the sun does. It would not be bright if the sun did not shine on it. Only one side of the moon was known previously. The moon keeps always the same side towards earth. But due to the Russian man-made satellite hitting the moon, the photograph of the other side had been taken.

OTHER PLANETS—*Mercury* is the smallest of the major planets and the one nearest the sun. Its diameter is about 3,000 m., its period of revolution is 88 days and its distance from the sun varies from 28,500,000 to 43,350,000 m. *Venus* is second of the planets in order of distance from the sun. Its mean distance from the latter is 67,200,000 m., and it revolves in its orbit in 225 days. Its diameter is 7,575 miles. It is the evening star seen in the western sky. *Mars* has a mean distance of 141,650,000 m. from the sun. Its mass is only about one-tenth that of the earth and its diameter is little more than half. Its period of rotation is 24 h. 37 m. 23 s. It has two very small satellites. It is the planet which, scientists believe, is most likely to have animal life. *Jupiter* is the largest of the planets with 12 known satellites. Its mean distance from the sun is about 86,728 miles. The planet requires 11 years 314.8 days to complete a revolution. Its diameter is 11 times that of the earth. It rotates on its axis in less than 10 hours. *Saturn's* mean distance from the sun is about 886,000,000 m., and it has a unique set of planetoid rings and at least 12 satellites. *Uranus* was discovered by Herschal in 1781. Its diameter is 30,000 m. and it revolves once round the sun, from which it is 1,782,800,000 m. distant, in 84.02 years. It has four main satellites. *Neptune* has a diameter of 31,000 m. The distance from the sun is 2,793½ million m. Neptune has one satellite and the time taken for one revolution round the sun is 164.8 years. *Pluto* is the

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outermost of the known planets. Its distance from the sun is about 3,700 million miles with a 248-year revolution period.

ASTEROID—Asteroids are actually little planets. They travel round the sun just as the big planets do. The paths of most of them are between the paths of Jupiter and Mars. More than 1,500 asteroids have been recognised and many more are believed to exist. Ceres with its diameter of about 480 miles is the largest asteroid. Many asteriods are about a mile or less in diameter and resemble meteorites rather than small planets.

COMETS—A heavenly body of a luminous and nebulous appearance that moves round the sun in an orbit that is normally elongated ellipse. Ordinarily a comet has a head of cloudy brightness, within which a bright nucleus or sometimes two or more nuclei, usually may be seen. Sweeping from the head curves the tail, which sometimes extends to a length of over 100,000,000 miles ; sometimes however, the tail is short. The head seems to be made up of widely distributed particles of rock or sand with gaseous matter between. Materials appear to be thrown out from the nucleus ; these, acted upon by the radiation pressure of the sun's light, which is strong enough to overcome the alternative force of the sun, are driven off in a direction opposite to the sun and spread along the heavens, forming comets' tail. So tenuous are comets that it requires no very great disturbing force to overcome the attraction holding their particles together. About 1,000 comets are known. A few comets travel in hyperbolic orbits, never returning, but most comets return over a period of years. The most famous is *Halleys Comet* which can be seen every seventy years.

METEORS—Meteors are pieces of matter which fall to the earth out of space. They plunge into earth's atmosphere at great speed and become incandescent from the resultant friction, so that they are seen in the sky as fireballs or "shooting stars". The majority of meteors are burned up long before they strike the earth's surface and those which reach the ground are known as *meteorites*. Millions of them enter our atmosphere every twenty-four hours and probably not more than one or two a day survive to strike the ground as meteorites. Hence meteors which reach the earth are called meteorites. The largest meteorite ever found was located near Grootfontein, South-West Africa, which weighs 70 tons. The second largest meteorite (weight 36¾ tons) was found at Cape York, Greenland.

CONSTELLATIONS—The stars we see as we look up at the sky at night are not scattered evenly across the whole sky. Instead, they are in groups. A group of stars is called a constellation. Ancient people saw the constellations as pictures in the sky. The names they gave the constellations tell us what pictures they saw. Most of the constellation names we use came down to us from the Greeks and Romans. Among them are Taurus (the Bull), Canis Major (the Big Dog), Pegasus (the winged horse) Draco (the Dragon), Ursa Major (the Big Bear), and Ursa Minor (the Little Bear). There are constellations in every direction from the earth. But only from the equator can they all be seen.

SATELLITES—The secondary bodies which revolve around the

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planets, as the planets revolve around the sun, are called satellites. Some of the planets in our solar system have several moons or satellltes. The moon is circling fast around the earth—about 2,300 miles an hour. It does not run away from the earth inspite of its speed, for the earths' gravity will not let it. With the exception of Mercury and Venus, all of the planets are accompanied by one or more satellites. Earth has one satellite, moon ; Mars has two ; Jupiter twelve ; Satura nine ; Uranus five ; and Neptune two.

STARS—'Sun' and 'star' mean the same. All stars are suns. Our sun, along with all other suns is a star. But when people talk about the stars they usually mean all the stars except our sun. Some stars are far bigger than our sun. Some are smaller. Some of the biggest stars are faint because they are so far away. sun is about 93,000,000 miles from the earth. Even the closest star is much further away than that. 'Star-shaped' means five points. But stars are really big round balls like our sun. We got the idea that stars have points because they twinkle. The twinkling is caused by refraction through the earths' atmosphere stars are not all the same colour, some are bluish-white, some white, some yellow, some orange and some red. They are of different colours because some are hotter than others. On a clear night a person sees in the say, about 2,000 separate stars. But tetescopes tell us that there are million and millions of stars.

Sirius—Is the brightest star. The nearest star visible to the naked eye is *Alpha Centauri*. Our nearest star excepting sun is *Proxima Centauri*.

POLAR AURORAS—The *Aurora Borealis* (northern lights) and *Aurora Australis* (southern lights) are luminous atmospheric phenomena, which occur in the Arctic and Antarctic regions respectively. They are patches of light, quivering beams or immense 'curtains' with swaying folds appearing in the night sky. They may be white, red, yellow, green, violet. It has been definitely established that sun-spots are the direct cause of these polar auroras. Sun-spots are magnetic storms of vast dimensions on the surface of the sun and they shoot out electrified particles into space. Those that come toward the earth are drawn toward the earth's magnetic poles and consequently these magnetic poles are the radiating centres of those electromagnetic waves in the sky that we commonly call *Northern Lights* or *Southern Lights*, depending upon whether we see them in the nothern or southern hemisphere.

MILKY WAY—A broad band of stars which seem to form a white pathway across the heavens, is commonly called the Milky Way. It is seen on clear, moonless summer evenings stretching entirely across north and south sky.

ATMOSPHERE—The atmosphere is composed of air which surrounds or envelopes the whole earth. It is sometimes likened to a great sea of gases, at the bottom of which we live. This air which surrounds the globe, affects the light that comes to us from heavenly bodies. It refracts (bends or changes the direction) light rays that enter it. Due to this refraction, we see the sun and the moon before they rise and after they set. The 'twinkling' of the stars is caused

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by convection currents in the air that have rapidly changing refractive effect on the light from the stars. Our twilight is produced by the diffusion in the atmosphere of light from the sun when it is below the horizon. Chemically the atmosphere is composed of nitrogen, oxygen and extremely minor amounts of argon, neon, helium, hydrogen and carbon dioxide.

GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

AREA OF THE CONTINENTS

	Sq. miles		*Sq. miles*
Africa ..	11,529,480	Europe ..	3,773,958
Antarctica ..	5,362,626	North America ..	9,358,976
Asia ..	16,494,217	South America ..	6,825,876
Australia ..	2,974,581		

RIVERS

River	*Location*	*length (m)*	*River*	*Location*	*length (m)*
Nile	Eastern Africa	4,037	Yenisei	USSR (Asia)	2,800
Mussouri-Missiseippi	U.S.	3,988	Parana	Brazil	
Amazon	Brazil	4,050	La Plata	Argentina	2,720
Ob	USSR. (Asia)	3,200	Awang Ho	China	2,700
Yangtze Kiang	China	3,200	Mekong	China	2,600
Congo	Congo (Africa)	3,000	Niger	W. Africa	2,600
Lena	USSR (Asia)	3,000	Mackenzie	Canada	2,525
Amur	USSR-China	2,800	Volga	USSR (Europe)	2,325

OCEANS AND SEAS

Oceans	*Area (sq. m.)*	*Greatest depth* (ft.)
Pacific ..	66,030,124	35,948 (*off Philippines*)
Atlantic ..	34,800,000	30,143 *Puerto Rico Trench*)
Indian ..	28,600,000	22,968
Arctic ..	5,541,600	16,500
Seas		
Malayan Sea ..	3,139,000	21,342
Caribbean ..	1,667,000	23,748
Mediterranean ..	1,145,000	14,435
Behring ..	878,000	13,422

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MOUNTAIN PEAKS

	Country	*height in ft.*		*Country*	*height in ft.*
Everest	Nepal-Tibet	29,028	Lhotse I	Nepal-Tibet	27,890
Godwin-Austen (k^2)	Kashmir	28,250	Makalu	Nepal-Tibet	27,824
Kanchanjanga	Nepal-Sikkim	28,116	Lhotse II	Nepal-Tibet	27,560
Cho 'Oyu'	Do.	26,867	Himalchuli	Nepal	25,801
Dhaulagiri	Nepal	26,811	Nuptse	Nepal-Tibet	25,680
Nanga Parvat	Kashmir	26,660	Masherbrum	Kashmir	25,660
Mansalu	Nepal	26,657	Nanda Devi	India	25,643
Annapurna	Nepal	26,503	Chomo Lonzo	Nepal-Tibet	25,640
Gosherbrum	Kashmir	26,470	Rekhaposhi	Kashmir	25,550
Gosainthan	Tibet	26,289	Kamet	India-Tibet	25,447
Disteghil	Kashmir	25,868			

LAKES

	Area (Sq. m.)		*Area (Sq. m.)*
Superior (N. America)	31,820	Great Bear (N. America)	12,000
Victoria Nyanza (Africa)	26,828	Great Slave (N. America)	11,170
Huron (N. America) ..	23,010	Nayasa (Africa) ..	11,000
Michigan (N. America)	22,400	Erie (North America)	9,940
Baikal (Siberia) ..	13,300	Winnipeg (North America)	9,398
Tanganyika (Africa)	12,700	Ontario (North America)	7,540

VOLCANOES

Active (highest)	*feet*		*feet*
Lascar (Chile) ..	19,652	Halcakala (Hawaii) ..	10,032
Kotopaxi (Equador) ..	19,344	Guntur (Java) ..	7,300
Sangay (do) ..	17,749	Pelee (W. Indies) ..	4,430
Tungurahua (do) ..	16,519	Krakatoa (Sunda Strait)	2,600
Kotacachi (do) ..	16,197	Two-Shima (Japan) ..	2,480
Klyuchevskaya (U.S.S.R.)	15,912		
Purace (Columbia) ..	15,604	*Extinct*	*feet*
Wrangell (Alaska) ..	14,006	Aconcagua (Argentina)	22,976
Tajumulco (Guatimala)	13,812	Chimborazo (Equador)	20,500
Mauna Loa (Hawaii) ..	13,680	Kilimanjaro (Tanganyika) ..	19,340
Tacana (Guatimala) ..	13,333	Antisana (Equador) ..	18,850
Qrebus (Antarctica) ..	13,200	Elburz (Caucasus) ..	18,526
		Popocatapetl (Mexico)	17,750
Dormant		Orizaba (Mexico) ..	17,400
Llullaillaco (Chile) ..	20,244	Fujiyama (Japan) ..	12,395
Demavend (Iran) ..	18,600		
Semerou (Java) ..	12,050		

ISLANDS

Island	*Ocean*	*Area Sq. miles*	*Island*	*Ocean*	*Area Sq. miles*
Greenland	N. Atlantic & Arctic	840,000	New Guinea	Pacific	340,000
			Borneo	Pacific	290,000

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Madagascar	Indian	228,000	Ellesmere	Arctic	77,000
Baffin	Arctic	198,000	Celebes	Pacific	73,000
Sumatra	Indian	164,000	South Island	Pacific	58,000
Great Britain	Atlantic	89,000	Java	Pacific	49,000
Honshu	Pacific	88,009	Cuba	Atlantic	44,000
Victoria	Arctic	80,000	North Island	Pacific	44,000

DESERTS

	Area (Sq. mi.)		*Area (Sq. mi.)*
Sahara (N. Africa) ..	3,500,000	Gobi (Mongolia) ..	500,000
Libyan (N. Africa) ..	650,000	Kizil Kum (Central Turkistan) ..	70,000
Australian (Australia)	600,000	Atacama (Chile) ..	70,000
Arabian (Arabia) ..	500,000	Mojave (U.S. California)	15,000
Kara Kum (S. W. Turkistan) ..	110,000	Colorado (do) ..	3,000

GEOGRAPHICAL SURNAMES

Island of Pearls—Bahrein (Persian Gulf).
World's loneliest island—Tristan De Cunha (Mid-Atlantic).
Roof of the World—Pamir.
Holy Land—Palestine.
Island of Cloves—Zanzibar.
Land of White Elephant—Siam.
Empire City—New York.
Pillars of Hercules—Strait of Gibraltar.
Key of the Mediterranean—Gibraltar.
Rose-pink City—Jaipur.
Mistress of the Adriatic—Venice.
Whiteman's grave—Guinea coast of Africa.
Sugar bowl of the world—Cuba.
Windy City—Chicago.
Venice of the North—Stockholm.
Forbidden City—Lhasa.
Land of Cakes—Scotland.
Land of Five Rivers—The Punjab.
Gateway of India—Bombay.
City of Palaces—Calcutta.
Dark Continent—Africa.
Emerald Isle—Ireland.
Land of Maple—Canada.
Bengal's sorrow—Damodar.
Never Never land—Vast prairies of northern Australia.
Land of Golden Fleece—Australia.
City of Sky-Scrapers—New York.
Cockpit of Europe—Belgium.
Land of Thousand Lakes—Finland.
City of Magnificent Distances—Washington D.C.
China's Sorrow—Hoang Ho.
Gate of Tears—Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb.
Pearl of the Antilles—Cuba.
The Corridor—A strip of land in Poland—separating Germany. from East Prussia.
Granite City—Aberdeen.
Eternal City—Rome.
Gift of the Nile—Egypt.
Land of Midnight Sun—Norway.
Land of Morning Calm—Korea.
Hermit Kingdom—Korea.
Playground of Europe—Switzerland.
City of Seven Hills—Rome.
Land of Rising Sun—Japan.
Queen of the Adriatic—Venice.
The Down Under—Australia.
Herring Pond—Atlantic Ocean.
Great White Way—Broadway (New York).
City of Dreaming Spires—Oxford.

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Garden of England—Kent.
Britain of the South— New-Zealand.
Blue Mountains—Nilgiri Hills.
Celestial City—Peking.
City of Golden Gate—San Francisco.

TUNNELS

	Miles		*Miles*
* East Finchley-Morden, *London* ..	17¼	Shimzu, *Japan* ..	6
Simplon, *Switzerland-Italy*	12¼	Rimutaka, *N. Z.* ..	5½
Apennine, *Italy* ..	11½	Grenchenberg, *Switzerland*	5¼
St. Gothard, *Switzerland*	9¼	Ricken (do) ..	5¼
Loetschbeg, *Switzerland*	9	Tauren, *Austria* ..	5¼
Mont Cenis, *Italy* ..	8½	Colle di Tenda, *Italy* ..	5
Cascade, *U.S.A.* ..	7¾	Connaught, *Canada* ..	5
Arlberg, *Austria* ..	6¼	Otira, *N. Z.* ..	5
Moffat, *U.S.A.*	6	Ronco, *Italy* ..	5
		Hauenstein, *Switzerland* ..	5

MOUNTAIN PASSES

	ft. high		*ft. high*
Alpine (Colorado, U.S.A.)	13,550	Brenner (Austrian Alps)	4,588
St. Bernard (Swiss Alps)	8,100	Simplon (Swiss Alps) ..	6,595
St. Gotthard (Swiss Alps)	6,936	Shipka (Bulgaria) ..	4,300
Bolan (Baluchistan)	5,880	Khybar (Afghanistan)	3,373

CAVES AND CAVERNS

Great Onyx Cave, Kentucky (U.S.A.).
Caverns of Luray, Virginia (U.S.A.).
Shenandoah Caverns, Virginia (U.S.A.).
Black Hills, South Dakota (U.S.A.).
Cyracuse (Cicily).
Indian Chamber Cave (N.S.W. Australia).
Carlshad Caverns (New Mexico). *Probably the largest in the world.*

HIGHEST DAMS

	ft.		*ft.*
Mouvoisin (Switzerland) ..	780	Tignes (France) ..	592
Hoover (U.S.A.) ..	726	Kurobe (Japan) ..	590
Glen Canyon (U.S.A.) ..	700	Grand Dixence (Switz.) ..	580
Bhakra (India) ..	680	Hungry Horse (U.S.A.) ..	564
Shasta (U.S.A.) ..	602	Grand Coulee (U.S.A.) ..	550

* London 'underground' Railway Tunnel.

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LARGEST DAMS

	cubic yds.		*cubic yds.*
Fort Peck (U.S.A.)	128,000,000	Kingsley (U.S.A.)	26,000,000
Oahe (U.S.A.)	78,000,000	Gatun (Panama Canal)	23,000,000
Garrison (U.S.A.)	75,000,000	Denison (U.S.A.)	17,913,000
Trinity (U.S.A.)	33,000,000	Sardis (U.S.A.)	16,776,000
Fort Randall (U.S.A.)	27,000,000		
Hirakud (India)	27,000,000		

CANALS

Canal	*Country*	*Length (m)*	*Width (ft.)*
Albert	Belgium	82	56
Amsterdam-Rhine	Netherlands	45	164
Corinth	Greece	4	72
Gotta	Sweden	115	47
Houston	U.S.	43	300
Kiel	Germany	61	150
Manchester	England	35.5	120
Panama	Canal Zone	50.7	300
Sault Ste Marie	U.S.	1.6	80
Suez	Egypt	103	197
Welland	Canada	27.6	200

GEOGRAPHICAL RECORD-BREAKERS

Highest Mountain System	Himalayas.
Longest Mountain System	Andes.
Highest Plateau ..	Tibet.
Longest River ..	Nile, 4145 m. long.
Largest River (in volume)	Amazon (3,900 miles).
Largest River Basin ..	Basin of Amazon (2,702,200 sq. miles).
Largest Inland Lake or Sea	Caspian Sea.
Largest Fresh Water Lake ..	Superior (32,820 sq. m.).
Largest Continent ..	Asia.
Largest group of Islands ..	Malaya Archipelago.
Deepest Lake ..	Lake Baikal (Siberia), average depth nearly 2,300 ft.
Largest Artificial Lake ..	Lake Mead at Boulder Dam (U.S.A.).
Largest north to south stretch of land ..	America : N. and S. extend from Arctic to the Antarctic Ocean.
Largest Inland Sea ..	Mediterranean Sea.
Largest Peninsula ..	Arabia.
Largest Ship Canal ..	White Sea Canal, 140 miles long.
Largest & Deepest Ocean	Pacific Ocean.
Highest Lake ..	Lake Titicaca (Bolivia, 12,500 ft. above sea).

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Geographical Record-Breakers—(*Concld.*)

Highest Auto Road ..	Mount Evans Highway (Colorado, U.S.A.).
Highest Capital City ..	La Paz (Bolivia).
Largest Island ..	Greenland (840,000 sq. miles).
Densest Population ..	Monaco (56,979 per sq. mile).
Hottest Region ..	North-west Sahara, Azizia (Tripolitania), Death Valley (California), and Thar Desert of North-West India.
Coldest Region ..	Verkoyansk in North-West Siberia where temperature is 94° below zero.
Highest Country ..	Tibet.
Largest Country ..	U.S.S.R.
Densely Populated Country	China.
Biggest Ocean ..	Pacific Ocean.
Most Northely Town ..	Hemmerfest, Norway, 275 miles north of Arctic circles.
Largest Desert ..	Sahara (Africa), greatest length east to west is 3,200 miles.
Largest City ..	Tokyo (Population, 8,415,397).
Highest Peak ..	Mt. Everest (29,028 ft.).
Rainiest Place ..	Cherrapunji (Assam).
Highest Active Volcano ..	Guallatire (Chile), 19,882.
Highest Dormant Volcano ..	Llullaillace (Chile), 20,244.
Smallest Continent ..	Australia.
Saltiest Sea ..	Dead Sea.
Smallest Country ..	Vatican City (109 acres).
Largest Delta ..	Sundarban Delta (8,000 sq. miles).
Highest Waterfall ..	Angel (Venezuela), 3,212 ft. high.
Largest Park ..	Yellowstone National Park (U.S.A.).
Largest Gorge ..	Grand Canyon (Arizona, U.S.A.).
Largest Atoll ..	Kwajalein, Marshall Islands (Central Pacific). Its 176 m. long coral reef encloses a lagoon of 1,100 sq. m.
Largest Reef ..	Great Barrier Reef (Australia), 1,260 miles long.
Longest Thoroughfare ..	Broadway, New York.
Highest City ..	Phari (Tibet), altitude 14,300 ft.
Lowest body of water ..	Dead Sea.
Deepest place in the ocean	Off the Island of Mindanao, Philippines, sounding of 35,410 ft. reached.

WORLD'S TEMPERATURE

Clodest Place—Verkoyansk (Syberia)—90°F (Feb. 5 & 7, 1892).

Hottest Place—Azizia (Libya)—136°.4F (Sept. 13, 1922).

Minimum recorded Rainfall—.02 inch at Arica, Chile—average yearly fall during 43 years.

Highest annual average temperature—88°F at Lugh, Somali land (Africa).

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Lowest Annual Average—14°F at Framheim, Antarctica (day and night).

Rainfall

—Average world rainfall—33 inches per year.

—maximum in one month : 366 in. at Cherrapunji, Assam, July 1861.

—maximum in one year : Mawsyhram, Assam: 670.35 in. in 1957.

—highest annual average : Waialeale, Hawaii, average of about 490 in. a year.

WATERFALLS

By Height	*Height (ft.)*
Angel (Venezuela) ..	3,212
Tugela (South Africa) ..	3,110
Sutherland (Newzealand)	1,904
Wollomombie (N.S.W.)	1,700
Takakkaw (Canada) ..	1,650
King George VI (Br. Guiana)	1,600
Upper Yosemite (U.S.A.)	1,430
Gavarnie (France)	1,385
Staubbach (Switzerland)	980
Trummelbach (do)	950
Vettis (Norway)	850
King Edward VIII (Br. Guiana)	840

By volume of water	*Thousands of gallons per second*
Guaira (Brazil)	2,900
Khone (Indo-China)	1,300
Niagara (Canada)	
Paulo Affonse (Brazil)	620
Iguassu (Argentina)	380
Maribondo (Brazil)	330
Victoria (Rhodesia)	240
Grand (Labrador)	220
Kaietur (Br. Guiana)	146

BIGGEST CITIES

Tokyo	.. 9,100,539	Buenos Aires	.. 3,673,600
London	.. 8,222,340	Chicago	.. 3,620,962
New York	.. 8,034,000	Berlin	.. 3,357,000
Shanghai	.. 6,204,417	Calcutta	.. 3,344,839
Moscow	.. 4,839,000	Leningrad	.. 3,176,000
Mexico city	.. 3,795,569	Sao Paulo	.. 3,149,504

POLAR RECORDS

Arctic

Year	*Explorer*	*No.*	*Latitude*
1587 ..	John Davis (U.K.)	72°	12′
1596 ..	Willem Barents & Jacob Van Heemskerck (Holland)	79°	49′
1607 ..	Henry Hudson (U.K.) ..	80°	23′
1616 ..	William Baffin & Robert Bylot (U.K.)	..	..
1728 ..	Vitus Bering (Russia)	..	..
1771 ..	Samuel Hearne	..	..
1778 ..	James Cook (U.K.)	..	..
1789 ..	Alexander Mackenzie (U.K.) ..		
1806 ..	William Scoresby (U.K.) ..	81°	30′
1820-3	Ferdinand Von Wrangel (Russia)	..	..
1854 ..	E. J. De Haven, E. K. Kane (U.S.A.)	80°	45′

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Polar Records—(*Contd.*)

1871 ..	Capt. Hall (U.S.A.)	82°		11′
1875 ..	Capt. Nares (G.B.)	83°		20′
1882 ..	L A. W. Greely (U.S.A.) ..	83°		24′
1892 ..	Lieut. Peary (U.S.A.)	83°		27′
1895 ..	Fridtjof Nansen (Norway) ..	86°		14′
1900 ..	Duke d' Abruzzi (Italy) ..	86°		34′
1902 ..	Lieut. Peary (U.S.A.)	84°		17′
1904 ..	Zeigler Polar Expedition (U.S.A.) ..	82°		4′
1906 ..	Commander Peary (U.S.A.) ..	87°		6′
1909 ..	Commander Peary (U.S.A.) ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1926 ..	Commander Byrd (U.S.A.)* ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1926 ..	Amundsen-Ellsworth-Nobile† ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1928 ..	Gen. U. Nobile † (Italy) ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1937 ..	Pavel Golvin, (*Soviet Russia*)* ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1937 ..	Otto J. Schmidt and four others* (Soviet Russia)	90°	(Pole)	..
1952 ..	Lt. Col. Benedict (U.S.A.F.) ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1958 ..	U.S. Atom-powered Submarine *Nautilus* passed under the Pole ..	90°	(Pole)	..

Antarctic

Year	*Explorer*	*No.*		*Latitude*
1774 ..	Capt. Cook (G.B.)	71°		10′
1823 ..	Capt. Weddell (G.B.)	74°		15′
1842 ..	Capt. Rose (G.B.)	78°		10′
1900 ..	Borchgrevink (G.B.)	78°		50′
1902 ..	Capt. Robert F. Scott (G.B.) ..	82°		17′
1909 ..	Lieut. Shackleton (G.B.) ..	88°		23′
1911 ..	Roald Amundsen (Norway) ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1912 ..	Capt. Robert F. Scott (G.B.) ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1935 ..	L. Ellsworth* (U.S.A.) ..	76°-79°		58′
1947 ..	Adml. Richard Byrd† (U.S.A.) ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1958 ..	Sir Edmund Hillary (New Zealand) ..	90°	(Pole)	..
1958 ..	Dr. Vivian Fuchs (G.B.) ..	90°	(Pole)	..

FIRST ASCENTS OF MOUNTAINS

Mont. Blanc (France-Italy), M. G. Paccard & J. Balmat, 1786.
Jungfrau (Switzerland), J. R. & H. Meyer, 1811.
Matterhorn (Switzerland), E. Whymper, 1865.
Elbruz (Caucasus), D. W. Freshfield, A. W. Moore, & C. C. Tucker, 1868.
Chimborazo (Ecuador), E. Whymper, 1880.
Mt. Cook (New Zealand), W. S. Green, 1882.
Kilimanjaro (Tanganyika), Meyer, 1887.
Aconcagua (Argentina), M. Zurbriggen, 1897.

* By airplane.
† By airship.

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First Ascents of Mountains—(*Contd.*)

Mt. St. Elias (Alaska), Duke of Abruzzi, 1897.
Mt. Kenya (Kenya), H. J. Macinder, 1899.
Ruwenzori (Central N. Africa), Duke of Abruzi, 1906.
Mt. McKinley (Alaska), Parker-Browne Expdt.
Mt. Logan (Alaska), A. H. McCarthy, 1925.
Illampu (Bolivia), German-Austrian Expedition.
Everest (Nepal). British Expedition, May 29, 1953.
K^2 (*Godwin Austen*, Karakoram), Italian Expedition, July 31, 1954.
Mt. Cho-Oyu (Nepalese Himalayas), by Austrian Expedition, Oct. 19, 1954.
Kanchenjunga (Nepal), British Exp., May 25, 1955.
Annaurna by Maurice Herzog (French), June 3, 1950.
Nanga Parvat by Austrian-German Exp., July 4, 1953.
Mt. Nunkum (Jammu & Kashmir) by French Exp., Aug. 28, 1953.
Makalu by French Expedition, May, 1955.
Lhotse by Swiss Expedition, May, 1956.
Mansalu by Japanese Expedition, May, 1956.

GENERAL INFORMATION

LONGEST RAILWAY STATION PLATFORMS

	feet
Storvik (*Sweden*) ..	2,470
Sone (*India*) ..	2,415
Kharagpur (*India*) ..	2,330
Bulawayo (*Rhodesia*) ..	2,302
New Lucknow (*India*) ..	2,250
Bezwada (*India*) ..	2,210
Manchester Victoria Exchange (*England*) ..	2,194
Jhansi (*India*) ..	2,025
Kotri (*N.W.R., Pakistan*)	1,896
Mandalay (*Burma Railways*) ..	1,788
Bournemouth (*England*)	1,734
Perth (*Scotland*) ..	1,714
York (*England*) ..	1,704
Cambridge (*England*) ..	1,629
Edinburgh (*Scotland*) ..	1,608
Aberdeen (*Scotland*) ..	1,596
Trichinopoly (*India*) . ..	1,546
Ranaghat (*India*) ..	1,522
Crewe (*England*) ..	1,509
Dakor (*India*) ..	1,470
Victoria (*London, England*)	1,430
New Castle (*England*) ..	1,365
Bristol (*England*) ..	1,300

LONGEST BRIDGES

(With length in feet of waterways)

Lower Zambesi (*Africa*)	11,322
Storsstromsbroen (*Denmark*) ..	10,499
Tay Bridge (*Scotland*)	10,289
Sone Bridge (*India*) ..	9,839
Godavari (*India*) ..	8,881
Forth Bridge (*Scotland*)	8,291
Rio Salado (*Argentina*)	6,703
Golden Gate (*U.S.A.*) ..	6,260
Rio Dulce (*Argentina*)	5,866
Hardinge (*Pakistan*) ..	5,384
Victoria Jubilee (*Canada*)	5,325
Moerdijk (*Netherlands*)	4,698

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Sydney Harbour (*Australia*) ..	4,124	Brooklyn (*U.S.A.*) ..	3,451
Jacques Cartier (*Canada*)	3,890	Quebec Bridge (*Canada*)	3.205
Queensborough (*U.S.A.*)	3,720	Torun (*Poland*)	2,291

NOTABLE TELESCOPES

REFRACTOR			*REFLECTOR*		
Size in inches	*Observatory*	*Location*	*Size in inches*	*Observatory*	*Location*
40	*Yerkes*	William Bay U.S.A.	200	*Palomar*	Mt. Palomar, California
36	*Lick*	Mt. Hamilton, California	100	*Mt. Wilson*	Pasadena, Cali.
32½	*Univ. of Paris*	Meudon, France	74	*Dunlap*	Richmond Hill, Canada
31½	*Astrophysical*	Potsdam, Germany	72	*Dominion Astrophysical*	Victoria, B.C.
30	*Alleghny*	Pittsburgh, U.S.A.	69	*Perkins*	Delaware, U.S.
30	*Bischoffsheim*	Nice, France	61	*Harvard*	Harvard, U.S.
30	*Poulkova*	Leningrad U.S.S.R.	60	*Bloemfontein*	S. Africa
30	*Poulkova*	Leningrad U.S.S.R.	60	*Mt. Wilson*	Pasadena, U.S.
			60	*Cordoba*	Argentina

FAMOUS BELLS

		weight (tons)		*weight (tons)*
Tsar Kolokol (*Moscow*)	1733	193	Big Ben (*West Minister Clock Tower, Eng.*)	13½
Moscow Bell (*Moscow*)		128	Olmütz Bell	17
Upper Burma Bell		80	Vienna Bell (1711)	17
Great Bell of Peking		53	Erfurt Bell	13
Cologne Cathedral		25	Great Tom (*Oxford*)	7½
Nanking Bell		22	Great Tom (*Lincoln, Eng.*)	5½
Great Bear (*York Minister, Eng.*)		17	Independence Hall Bell (*Philadelphia*)	6½
Notre Dame Bell (1680)		17	River-side Church Bell (*New York*)	18½
Great Paul (*St. Paul's Cathedral, London*)		162		

TALL BUILDINGS AND TOWERS

	No. of stories	*feet*		*No. of stories*	*feet*
Empire State with T. V. Tower		1,472	Eiffel Tower (Paris) ..		984
Empire State (N.Y.)	102	1,250	60 Wall Tower (N.Y.)	66	950
Chrysler (N.Y.)	77	1,046	Bank of Manhattan (N.Y.) ..	71	927

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Tall Buildings and Towards—(*Contd.*)

	No. of stories	*feet*
R.C.A. (N.Y.) ..	60	792
Woolworth (N.Y.)	60	792
Moscow State Univ.	28	787
Palace of Culture & Science (Warsaw)	38	756
City Bank (N.Y.)	54	741
Terminal Tower (U.S.)	52	708
500 5th Avenue	60	700
Metropolitan (N.Y.)	50	700
Chanin Tower (U.S.)	56	680
Lincoln (U.S.)	53	673
Irving Trust (U.S.)	50	654
General Electric (U.S.)	50	641
Waldorf-Astoria (N.Y.)	47	625

	No. of stories	*feet*
Cathedrals		
Ulm Cathedral (Ger.) ..		529
Cologne Cathedral ..		512
St. John the Divine (N.Y.) ..		500
Rouen Cathedral (Fr.) ..		485
Straussburg Cathedral (Germany) ..		468
Pyramid of Cheops (Egypt)		450
St. Stephen's Cathedral (Vienna)		441
Salisbury		440
Seville ..		400
Antwerp ..		397

WORLD'S LONGEST SPANS BY TYPES OF BRIDGES

Type	*Bridge*	*Location*	*Year Completed*	*Span (ft.)*
Cable Suspension	Golden Gate	San Francisco	1937	4,200
Transporter Bridge	†Sky Ride	Chicago	1933	1,850
Cantilever	*Quebec	Canada	1917	1,800
Steel Arch	Kill Van Kull	New York	1931	1,652
Eyebar Suspension	*Florianopolis	Brazil	1926	1,114
Concrete Arch	Sando	Sweden	1943	866
Continuous Truss	Dubuque	Mississippi River	1943	845
Simple Truss	*Metropolis	Ohio River	1917	720
Continuous Girder	Dusseldorf-Neuss	Rhine River	1951	676
Vertical Lift	†Cape Cord Canal	Massachusetts	1935	544
Wichert Truss	Homestead	Pittesburgh (U.S.)	1937	533½
Swing Span	*Fort Madison	Mississippi River	1927	525
Tubular Girder	*Britannia	Menai Strait	1850	460
Timber Span	Wettingen	Switzerland	1758	396
Pretressed Concrete Girder	Worms	Germany	1953	375
Bascule	*Soult Ste. Marie	Michigan	1914	336
Simple Girder	Harlem River	New York	1951	330

* Railroad Bridge. † Not standing.

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Masonry Arch	Plauen	Germany	1903	260
Single-Leaf Bascule	*16th St.	Chicago	1919	260
Concrete Girder	Villeneuve	France	1939	256

HIGHEST TELEVISION AND RADIO MASTS

	Height (ft.)		*Height (ft.)*
Moscow T. V. Centre mast (USSR) ..	1,864	Eiffel Tower, Paris (France) ..	1,043
Roswell T. V. Mast, New Mexico (USA) ..	1,610	Lakihegg Broadcasting Tower (Hungary) ..	1,006
Das Fernsehturm, Stutt gart (Germany) ..	1,296	G. P. O. Masts, Rugby (England) ..	820
Thule Radio Mast, (Greenland) ..	1,212	Hobro T. V. Tower (Denmark) ..	810
Tokio T. V. Tower (Japan)	1,089		

BIGGEST, LARGEST, GREATEST, LONGEST

Largest Archipelago ..	Indonesia.
Highest Mountain Peak ..	Mount Everest (29,028 ft.).
Largest Desert ..	Sahara (Africa) 3,500.000 sq. m.
Largest tree ..	Californian Redwood in Sequsia National Park, California, base 101 ft. 7 in. circumference and requires 17 men to encircle it with outstretched arms.
Largest Palace ..	Vatican (Rome). 13½ acres with 1,400 rooms.
Biggest Ship ..	Queen Elizabeth (83,673 tons).
Largest Diamond Mine ..	Kimberly, South Africa.
Tallest Statue ..	Statue of Liberty (N.Y.) from heel to
Tallest Church ..	head 111 ft.; base of the pedastal to the top of the torch 305 ft. Ulm. Cathedral (Ger. 529 ft. high).
Largest Church ..	Church of St. Peter (Rome).
Largest Diamond ..	The Cullinan (over 1½ lb.).
Rainiest Place ..	Cherrapunji, Assam.
Biggest & Deepest Ocean ..	Pacific Ocean (66,030,124 sq. m.).
Longest Corridor ..	Rameswaram Temple Corridor, S. India. About 4,000 ft. long.
Longest Rly. Platform ..	Storvik (Sweden) 2,470 ft.
Largest Pearl ..	Beresford-Hope Pearl (1,800 grams).
Largest Bell ..	*Tsar Kolokol*, Kremlin (Moscow) weighs about 193 tons.
Largest Concrete Structure	Grand Dixence (Switzerland).
Largest Sewage Disposal Plant ..	Chicago Sewage System (U.S.A.).
Longest man-made water supply line ..	Colorado Aqueduct (242 miles, U.S.A.).

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Biggest, Largest, Greatest, Longest—(*Contd.*)

Deepest Mine	..	Ooregum Section of the Kolar Gold Fields, Mysore, nearly 10,000 ft. deep.
Longest Railway Run	..	Riga to Vladivostock (6,000 miles).
Largest Telescope	..	At Mt. Palomar, California, diameter of reflector is 200 inches.
Largest Museum	..	British Museum (London).
Longest River	..	Mississippi-Missouri.
Largest River (in vol.)	..	Amazon.
Largest Railway Station	..	Grand Central Terminal (New York) with 47 platforms.
Largest Dome	..	Gol Gambuz (Bijapur) 144 ft.
Largest Building	..	The Pyramid at Gizeh, Egypt.
Tallest Tower	..	Eiffel Tower, Paris, 984 ft. high.
Largest group of Islands	..	Malaya Archipelago.
Largest Delta	..	Sundarban Delta, 8,000 sq. m.
Largest Royal Palace	..	The Palace at Madrid.
Deepest hole	..	An oil well of 15,279 ft. in Texas, U.S.
Highest capital city	..	La Paz (Bolivia).
Highest Straight Gravity Dam	..	Bhakra Dam (India) 680 ft.
Largest Indoor Theatre	..	Radio City Music Hall with 6,200 persons.
Largest land animal	..	African elephant.
Biggest Railway Station	..	Grand Central Terminal, New York, covering an area of 48 acres. On an average 600 trains and 180,000 people per day use it.
Longest viaduct	..	Lake Pontchartrain Causeway (Louisiana, U.S.) with total length of 23.83 miles.
Tallest Light House	..	Bishop Rock (England), 146 ft. high.
Largest Zoo	..	Kouger National Park, South Africa.
Largest Sculptures	..	Mount Rushmore National Memorial (U.S.A.) containing busts of Presidents Washington, Jefferson, T. Roosevelt and Lincoln.
Longest Dam	..	Hirakud Dam (Orissa) totalling 15.8 miles.
Oldest Concrete Dam	..	Aswan Dam, Egypt built in 1902.
Biggest Concrete Dam	..	Grand Coulee Dam, United States.
Highest Dam	..	Mauvoisin (Switzerland, 780 ft.).
Largest Single Country	..	Brazil (3,285,319 sq. miles).
Largest Freshwater Lake	..	Lake Superior, 32,820 sq. m.
Highest Lake	..	Lake Titicaca (South America), altitude 12,507 ft.
Loftiest active volcano	..	Cotopaxi (19,550 ft.), Equador.
Largest & populous continent		Asia.
Longest Wall	..	Great Wall of China over 1,500 miles.

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Biggest, Largest, Greatest, Longest—(*Concld.*)

Highest Suspension Bridge	..	Royal Gorge, Colorado, U.S.A. 12,740 ft. high.
Tallest Building	..	Empire State Building (102 stories, 1,250 ft.).
Highest Country	..	Tibet (Averaging 16,000 ft.).
Largest office building	..	Pentagon (U.S.A.) 34 acres, where 32,000 people work daily ; floor area, approximately 6,500,000 sq. ft. has 17 miles of corridor.
Longest Tunnel	..	East Finchley-Morden (London underground Ry. Tunnel) 17¼ miles.
Largest Peninsula	..	India.
Largest Island	..	Greenland (827,200 sq. miles).
Densest Population	..	Monaco (33,898 per sq. m.).
Largest Planetary Body	..	Jupiter.
Biggest Park	..	Yellowstone National Park (U.S.A.). 3,350 sq. miles.
Largest Ship Canal	..	Suez Canal (100.6 miles long).
Largest Archway	..	Sydney Harbour Bridge (Australia).
Highest City	..	Phari, Tibet, altitude 14,300 ft.
Highest Airfield	..	Ladakh airfield (Kashmir), 14,230 ft.
Longest Thoroughfare	..	Broadway in New York.
Largest hotel	..	Conrad Hilton Hotel, Chicago (U.S.) has 25 floors with 3,000 guest rooms.
Largest stadium	..	Strahov Stadium (Prague) accomodates 240,000 spectators.

INVENTIONS

Invention	*Inventor*	*Country*	*Date*
Air brake	G. Westinghouse	U.S.	1868
Air conditioning	W. H. Carrier	U.S.	1911
Airplane	W. & O. Wright	U.S.	1903
Barometer	E. Torricelli	Italy	1643
Bessemer Converter	Sir H. Bessemer	England	1856
Bicycle	Macmillan	Scotland	1839
Bakelite	Baekland	U.S.	1907
Balloon	Montgolfier Bros.	France	1783
Canning	Francois Appert	France	1804
Cash Register	James Ritty	U.S.	1879
Celluloid	John W. Hyatt	U.S.	1869
Cinema Scope	Henri Chretien	France	1931
Clock, pendulum	C. Huygens	Netherlonds	1656
Cotton gin	Eli Whitney	U.S.	1793
Cyclotron	E. O. Lawrence	U.S.	1931
Diesel engine	Rudolf Diesel	Germany	1892
Dynamite	Alfred Nobel	Sweden	1862
Electromagnet	W. Sturgeon	England	1825

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Inventions—(*Contd.*)

Invention	*Inventor*	*Country*	*Date*
Electric lamp bulb	Edison	U.S.	1879
Electric generator	Faraday	England	1831
Electric motor, A.C.	Nikola Tesla	U.S.	1892
Electric trolly	F. J. Sprague	U.S.	1887
Elivator, passenger	E. G. Otis	U.S.	1861
Fountain pen	Waterman	U.S.	1884
Gyrocompass	E. A. Sperry	U.S.	1911
Gyroscope	Leon Foucault	France	1852
Hydroplane	Curtiss	U.S.	1911
Internal combustion engine	Daimler	Germany	1885
Jet propulsion	Sir Frank Whittle	England	1930
Kodak	George Eastman	U.S.	1888
Linotype machine	O. Mergenthaler	U.S.	1885
Locomotive, steam	R. Trevithick	England	1804
Machine gun	Getling	U.S.	1861
Match, friction	John Walker	England	1827
Microscope, compound	Janssen	Netherlands	1590
Movie projector	Edison	U.S.	1893
Nylon	W. H. Carothers	U.S.	1930
Papermaking machine	Louis Robert	France	1798
Parachute	F. Blanchard	France	1758
Phonograph	Edison	U.S.	1877
Photography, black & white	Louis Daguerre	France	1839
Photography, colour	Lippman	France	1891
Pneumatic tyre	Dunlop	North Ireland	1888
Printing Press	Gutenburgh	Germany	1450
Quick freezing of food	Birdseye	U.S.	1925
Radio	G. Marconi	Italy	1895
Reaper	McCormick	U.S.	1834
Refrigeration, mechanical	Parkins	U.S.	1834
Rifle, automatic	John M. Browning	U.S.	1918
Rocket, liquid fuel	Goddard	U.S.	1926
Rubber, vulcanised	C. Goodyear	U.S.	1839

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Inventions—(*Contd.*)

Invention	*Inventor*	*Country*	*Date*
Safety lamp	Sir H. Davy	England	1816
Safety pin	Walter Hunt	U.S.	1849
Sewing machine	Elias Howe	U.S.	1846
Sleeping car	G. M. Pullman	U.S.	1858
Spinning Jenny	Hargreaves	England	1764
Steam engine	James Watt	Scotland	1765
Steamboat	Robert Fulton	U.S.	1807
Submarine	John P. Holland	U.S.	1891
Tank, military	Swinton	England	1914
Telegraph	Samuel Morse	U.S.	1837
Telephone	Graham Bell	U. S.	1876
Telescope	Lippershey	Netherlands	1608
Television			
Iconoscope	Zworykin	U. S.	1923
Televisor	John L. Baird	England	1925
Image dissector	Farnsworth	U.S.	1928
Thermometer	Galileo Galilei	Italy	1593
Typewriter	Sholes	U.S.	1868
Vacuum tube	Lee De Forest	U.S.	1907
X'ray machine	W. K. Roentgen	Germany	1895
Zipper	W. L. Judson	U.S.	1893

DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS IN ELECTRICITY

1745—Von Kleist : Leyden jar condenser.
1752—Franklin : Lightning rod and nature of lightning.
1800—Volta : Electric battery.
1805—Brugnatelli (It.) : Electroplating.
1809—Davy (Eng.) : Electric Arc lamp.
1823—Sturgeon (Eng.) : Electromagnet.
1825—Faraday (Eng.) : Benzine.
1828—Renry : Electromagnetism and induction.
1831—Faraday (Eng.) : Electric dynamo.
1832—Morse : Electric telegraph.
1834—Moritz Jacobi : Electric Motor.
1852—Gauss : System of absolute electric measurements.
1861—Paccinnote (It.) : Electric armature.
1870—Gramme : First industrial dynamo.
1879—Swan : Electric lamp.
1791—Galvani : Theory of animal electricity.
1800—Bolta (It.) : Electric battery.
1876—Bell : Telephone.
1878—Crookes : Cathode ray.
1879—Edison : Electric incandescent lamp.
1885—Stanley : Electric Transformer.
1888—Hertz (Ger.) : Electrical Waves.
1892—Tesla : Alternating current motor.
1892—Steinmetz : Laws of alternating current.
1895—Roentgen : X-ray.
1896—Marconi : Practical wireless.
1897—Thomson : Isolation of the electron.

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1904—Fleming : First diode radio tube.
1907—De Forest : Triode radio tube.
1914—Coolidge : Tungsten filament lamp.
1925—Baird : Television.

MEDICAL DISCOVERIES

Hyppocrates (Greece) 460-377 B.C.? ..	Known as the father of medicine, Doctors are still guided by the Hippocratic Oath.
William Harvey (England) 1578-1657 ..	Harvey discovered the true way of blood circulation.
Antony van Leeuwenhock (Dutch) 1632-1723 ..	First man to draw and describe bacteria.
Edward Jenner (England) 1749-1823 ..	made important discovery of vaccination.
Laennec (France) 1781-1826	invented the stethoscope which enables to listen to a patient's breathing and heart beat.
William Beaumont (U.S.) 1785-1853 ..	discovered the function of the stomach in digesting food and the part played by the gastric juice.
Louis Pasteur (France) 1822-1895 ..	proved that many diseases are caused by germs.
Joseph Lister (England) 1827-1912 ..	found certain substances known as antiseptics kill disease germs.
Robert Koch (Germany) 1843-1910 ..	found out bacteria of tuberculosis, anthrax and Asiatic cholera.
W. K. Roentgen (Germany) 1845-1923 ..	discovered X'rays which enables to see inside of a patient's body.
Paul Ehrlich (Germany) 1855-1915 ..	pioneer in the use of injecting chemical substances into blood stream to kill disease germs.
Sigmund Freud (Austria) 1856-1939 ..	discovered the causes and cures of mental diseases and established the modern theory of psychiatry.
F. G. Banting (Canada) 1891-1941 ..	one of the discoverers of insulin, the first hormone to be discovered. Insulin helps the people to cure diabetes.

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Alexander Fleming (England) 1881-1957 ..	discovered penicillin, the first of antibiotic miracle drugs.
H. W. Florey (England) 1898 and E. B. Chain Germany) 1906- ..	Florey and Chain discovered that penicillin could be very effective in different diseases caused by germs.
G. Domagk (Germany) 1895-	discovered first series of drugs known as sulfa drugs.
Jonas Salk (U.S.) 1914- ..	discovered a vaccine to prevent polio in 1955.

THEORIES

Alternating Current, Laws of: Steinmetz, 1592.
Atomic Theory: John Dalton, 1803.
Atomic numbers: H. Moseley, 1913.
Atom Smashing Theory: Ratherford, 1919.
Blood circulation: W. Survey, 1628.
Classification of Plants & Animals: C. Lennaeus, 1737-53.
Combustion, Nature of: Lavoisier, 1777.
Conditioned Reflex: I. Pavlov, 1910.
Displacement of water, Theory of: Archimedes, 3 Century B.C.
Dynamic theory of heat: Kelvin, 1851.
Electromagnetic waves: Hertz, 1886.
Electron, Wave nature of: Louis Victor de Broglie, 1924.
Evolution by natural selection: Darwin, 1859.
Falling bodies, law of: Galileo, 1590.
Gravitation, Law of: Newton, 1687.
Germ Theory: Pasteur, 1876.
Gases, Laws governing: Joseph Gay-Lussac, 1809.
Heredity, Laws of: G. Mendel, 1865.
Intelligence testing, modern: A. Binet & T. Simon, 1905.
Isotopes, Theory of: F. Soddy, 1912.
Light, Electromagnetic theory of: J. C. Maxwell, 1873.
Multiple proportion, Laws of: John Dalton, 1808.
Molecular hypothesis: A. Avogadro, 1811.
Ohm's Law: G. S. Ohm, 1827.
Origin of Species: Darwin, 1859.
Periodic table: D. Mendeleev, 1869.
Photo-electric cell, Principles of: A. Becquerel, 1839.
Psychoanalysis: S. Freud, 1904.
Quantum Theory: Max Von Plank, 1901.
Refraction of light, Laws of: W. Snell, 1621.
Relativity, theories of: A. Einstein 1905-53.
Spectrum Analysis: R. Bunsen & G. Kirchnoff, 1859.
Sulfanilamide Theory: Gelmo (Gr.), 1908.
Uranium fission theory: Hahn, (Gr.), Bohr. (Danish), Fermi (Italian), Wheeler, Einstein (U.S.).
Water, Synthesis of: H. Cavandish, 1781.

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NOBEL PRIZES

Physics

1901 W. K. Roentgen (Ger.).
1902 H. A. Lorentz and P. Zeeman (Denmark).
1903 A. H. Becquerel, France and Pierre and Marie Curie (France).
1904 Lord Rayleigh (England).
1905 Philipp Lenard (Ger.).
1906 J. J. Thomson (Eng.).
1907 A. A. Michelson (U.S.).
1908 G. Lippman (France).
1909 G. Marconi (Italy) and F. Braun (Germany).
1910 J. D. Van der Waals (Holland).
1911 W. Wien (Ger.).
1912 Gustaf Dalen (Sweden).
1913 H. Kamerlingh-Onnes (Denmark).
1914 M. Von Laue (Ger.).
1915 W. H. Bragg and W. L. Bragg (Eng.).
1916 *No award.*
1917 C. G. Barlka (Eng.).
1918 Max Planck (Germany).
1919 J. Stark (Ger.).
1920 C. E. Guillaume (Switz.).
1921 A. Einstein (Ger.).
1922 Niels Bohr (Denmark).
1923 R. A. Millikan (U.S.).
1924 Karl M. G. Seigbahn (Sweden).
1925 James Franck (Ger.). & Gustav Hertz (Ger.).
1926 Jean B. Perrin (France).
1927 Arthur Compton (U.S.) and Prof. Charles T. R. Wilson (England).
1928 Prof. O. W. Ricardson (Eng.).
1929 Duc L. V. de Broglie (Fr.).
1930 Sir C. V. Raman (India).
1931 *No award.*
1932 W. Heisenberg (Ger.).
1933 P. A. M. Dirac (Eng.) and Erwin Schroedinger (Austria).
1934 *No award.*
1935 J. Chadwick (England).
1936 V. F. Hees (Austria) and C. D. Anderson (U.S.).
1937 C. J. Davisson (U.S.). G. P. Thomson (England).
1938 E. Fermi (Italy).
1939 E. O. Lawrence (U.S.).
1940-42 *No award.*
1943 Otto Stern (U.S.).
1944 I. I. Rabi (U.S.).
1945 W. Pauli (Austria).
1946 P. W. Bridgman (U.S.).
1947 Sir E. Appleton (Eng.).
1948 P. M. S. Blackett (Eng.).
1949 Hideki Yukawa (Japan).
1950 C. F. Powell (England).
1951 Sir John Cockcroft (Eng.) and E. T. S. Walton (Eire).
1952 E.M. Purcell & Felix Bloch (U.S.)
1953 Prof. Fritz Zernike.
1954 Dr. S. Max Born & Walther Bothe (Germany)
1955 W. E. Lamb & P. Kusch (U.S.).
1956 Walter H. Brattain, W. Shockley & John Bardeen (U.S.).
1957 Dr. Tsung Dao Lee & Chen Ming Yang (China).
1958—Pavel A. Cherenkov, Ilya M. Frank & Igor Y. Tamm (USSR).
1959 Dr. Emilio Secre & Dr. Owen Chamberlain (U.S.).
1960 Donald A. Glaser (US)

Medicine and Physiology

1901 El. A. von Behring (Ger.).
1902 Sir Ronald Ross (Eng.).
1903 N. R. Finsen (Denmark).
1904 Ivan P. Pavlov (Russia).
1905 Robert Koch (Germany).
1906 Ramony Cajal (Spain) & Camillo Golgi (Italy).

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1907 C. L. A. Laveran (France).
1908 Paul Ehrlich (Ger.) & E. Metchnikoff (Fr.).
1909 T. Kocher (Germany).
1910 A. Kossel (Germany).
1911 A. Gullstrand (Sweden).
1912 A. Carrel (America).
1913 Charles Richet (France).
1914 R. Barnay (Austria).
1915-18 *No award.*
1919 Dr. J. Bordet (Belgium).
1920 August Krogh (Denmark).
1921 *No award.*
1922 A. V. Hill (Eng.) and Otto Mayerhoff (Ger.).
1923 F. G. Banting and Dr. J. J. R. McLeod (Canada).
1924 W. Einthoven (Holland).
1925 *No award.*
1926 J. Fibiger (Denmark).
1927 Julius W. Jauregg (Aust.).
1928 Charles Nicolle (France).
1929 F. G. Hopkins (Eng.). & C. Eijkmann (Holland).
1930 Karl Landsteiner (U.S.)
1931 Otto H. Warburg (Ger.).
1932 Sir C. Sherrington & E. D. Adrian (England).
1933 T. H. Morgan (U.S.).
1934 G. R. Minot, W. P. Murphy and G. H. Whipple (U.S.).
1935 Hans Spemann (Ger.).
1936 Sir Henry Dale (Eng.) & Prof. Otto Loewe (Aust.).
1937 Albert von Szent-gyorgyi (Hungary).
1938 C. Heymans (Belgium).
1939 Prof. G. Domagk (Ger.).
1940-42 *No award.*
1943 Henrik Dam (Copenhagen) and Edward Doisy (U.S.).
1944 Joseph Erlanger and H. S. Gasser (U.S.).
1945 Sir A. Fleming, Sir Howard Florey and Dr. E. B. Chain (England).
1946 H. J. Muller (U.S.).
1947 Dr. Carl F. and Mrs. F. Cori (Czechoslovakia) and B. A. Houssay (Argentina).
1948 Paul Muller (Swiss.).
1949 W. R. Hess (Swiss) & A. C. D. F. E. Moniz (Portugal).
1950 E. C. Kendall & Philip S. Hench (Switzerland) & T. Reichstein (Swiss.).
1951 Max Theiler (U.S.).
1952 S. Waksman (U.S.).
1953 Dr. Fritz A. Lipmann & Dr. Hans A. Krebs.
1954 Drs. J. F. Enders, F. Robbins & T. Weller (U.S.).
1955 Hugo Theorell (Sweden).
1956 Andre Cournand (U.S.), Dr. W. Forsmann (Ger.) & D. W. Richards (U.S.).
1957 Daniel Bovet (Italy).
1958 W. Beadle, Joshua Lederburg & E. L. Tatum (U.S.).
1959 Severo Ochoa & Arthur Kornberg (U.S.).
1960 Prof Medawar & Sir M. Burnett

Chemistry

1901 J. H. Hoff (Holland).
1902 Emil Fischer (Germany).
1903 S. A. Arrhenius (Sweden).
1904 Sir W. Ramsay (Eng.).
1905 A. Von Baeyer (Ger.).
1906 Henri Moissan (France).
1907 E. Buchner (Germany).
1908 Ernest Rutherford (Eng.).
1909 Wilhelm Ostwald (Ger.).
1910 Otto Wallach (Germany).
1911 Marie Curie (France).
1912 V. Grignard and P. Sabatier (France).
1913 Alfred Werner (Swiss.).
1914 T. W. Richards (England).
1915 R. Willstatter (Ger.).
1916-17 *No award.*
1918 Firtz Haber (Germany).
1919 *No award.*
1920 Walther Nernst (Ger.).

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1921 Frederick Soddy (Eng.).
1922 F. W. Aston (England).
1923 Fritz Pregl (Austria).
1924 *No award.*
1925 R. Zsigmondy (Ger.).
1926 T. Svedberg (Sweden).
1927 H. Wieland (Germany).
1928 Dr. Adolf Windaus (Ger.).
1929 A. Harden (Eng.) and K. A. S. von Euler-Cheplin (Sweden).
1930 Hans Fischer (Germany).
1931 Carl Bosch and F. Bergius (Germany).
1932 Irving Langmair (U.S.).
1933 *No award.*
1934 H. C. Urey (U.S.).
1935 Frederic & Irene Joliot-Curie (France).
1936 Peter J. W. Debye (Ger.).
1937 W. N. Haworth (Eng.) & Paul Karrer (Swiss.).
1938 R. Kuhn (Germany).
1939 A. Butenandt (Ger.) and Leopold Ruzicka (Swiss.).
1940-42 *No award.*
1943 G. Hevesy (Hun.).
1944 Otto Hahn (Ger.).
1945 Artturi Virtanen (Finland).
1946 James B. Sumner, W. M. Stanley & J. H. Northrop (America).
1947 Robert Robinson (Eng.).
1948 Arne Telius (Sweden).
1949 W. F. Giauque (U.S.A.).
1950 Otto Diels & Kert Adler (Germany).
1951 E. M. McMillian & G. T. Seaborg (U.S.A.).
1952 Dr. A. J. P. Martin & R. L. M. Synge (Eng.).
1953 Dr. H. Staudinger
1954 Dr. L. Pauling (U.S.A.).
1955 D. Vincent du Vigneaud.
1956 Sir Cyril Hirshelwood (Eng.) & Prof. Nikolai Semenov (U.S.S.R.).
1957 Sir A. Todd (Eng.).
1958 Frederick Sanger (Eng.).
1959 Jaroslav Heyrovsky (Czechoslovakia).
1960 W.F Libby (U.S)

Literature

1901 Rene F. A. Sully-Frudhomme (France).
1902 T. Mommsen (Germany).
1903 B. Bjornson (Norway).
1904 F. Mistral (France) & Jose Echegaray (Spain).
1905 H. Sienkiewicz (Poland).
1906 G. Carduici (Italy).
1907 Rudyard Kipling (Eng.).
1908 R. Eucken (Germany).
1909 Selma Largerlof (Sweden).
1910 Paul Heyse (Germany).
1911 M. Maeterlink (Belgium).
1912 G. Hauptmann (Ger.).
1913 Rabindranath Tagore (India).
1914 *No award.*
1915 Romain Rolland (France).
1916 V. Heidenstam (Sweden).
1917 Karl Gjellerup and H. Pontoppidan (Denmark).
1918 *No award.*
1919 C. Spitteler (Swiss.).
1920 Knut Hamsun (Norway).
1921 Anatole France (France).
1922 J. Benavente (Spain).
1923 W. B. Yeats (Ireland).
1924 W. Reymont (Poland).
1925 G. B. Shaw (England).
1926 Grazia Deledda (Italy).
1927 Henri Bergson (France).
1928 Sigrid Undset (Norway).
1929 Thomas Mann (Germany).
1930 Sinclair Lewis (U.S.).
1931 Erik A. Karlfeldt (Sweden).
1932 J. Galsworthy (England).
1933 Ivan G. Bunin (Russia).
1934 Luigi Pirandello (Italy).
1935 *No award.*
1936 Eugene O'Neil (U.S.).
1937 R. M. du Gard (France)
1938 Pearl S. Buck (U.S.).
1939 Emil Sillanpaa (Finland).
1940-43 *No award.*
1944 J. V. Jensen (Denmark).

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1945 Gabriela Mistral (Chile).
1946 Herman Hesse (Swiss).
1947 Andre Gide (France).
1948 T. S. Eliot (England).
1949 W. Faulkner (U.S.).
1950 Bertrand Russell (Eng.).
1951 Par Lagerkvist (Sweden).
1952 Francois Mauriac (Fr.).
1953 Winston Churchill (Eng.).
1954 E. Hemingway (U.S.).
1955 Halldor K. Laxness (Iceland).
1956 Juen R. Jimenez (Spain).
1957 Albert Camus (France).
1958 Boris Pasternak (U.S.S.R.)*
1959 Salvatore Quasimodo (Italy).

Peace 1960 - Saint John Perse (France)

1901 Henri Dunant (Switzerland) & F. Passy (Fr.).
1902 Elie Ducommun and A. Gobat (Belgium).
1903 W. R. Cremer (Eng.).
1904 The Institute of International Law (Belgium).
1905 Bertha von Suttner (Austria).
1906 T. Roosevelt (U.S.).
1907 E. T. Moneta (Italy) and Louis Renault (France).
1908 K. P. Arnoldson (Sweden) & Frederick Bajer (Den).
1909 Baron de Constant (Fr.) & A. Beernaert (Belgium).
1910 International Permanent Peace Bureau (Swiss.).
1911 T. M. C. Asser (Holland) & A. Fried (Austria).
1912 Elihu Root (U.S.).
1913 H. la Fontaine (Belgium).
1914-16 *No award.*
1917 International Red Cross, (Geneva).
1918 *No award.*
1919 Woodrow Wilson (U.S.).
1920 Leon Bourgeois (France).
1921 K. H. Branting (Sweden) and Christian L. Lange (Norway).
1922 F. Nansen (Norway).
1923-24 *No award.*
1925 Charles G. Dawes (U.S.) & Sir A. Chamberlain (Eng.).
1926 Aristide Briand (France) & G. Stresemann (Ger.).
1927 F. Buisson (France) and Ludwig Quidde (Germany).
1928 *No award.*
1929 F. B. Kellogg (U.S.)
1930 L. O. J. Soderblom (Sweden).
1931 Jane Addams & Nicholas M. Butler (U.S.).
1932 *No award.*
1933 Norman Angell (England).
1934 A. Henderson (England).
1935 Carl von Ossietosky (Ger.).
1936 C. de S Lamas (Argentine).
1937 Viscount Cecil (England).
1938 Nansen International Office for Refugees (Geneva).
1939-43 *No award.*
1944 International Committee of Red Cross (Swiszerland).
1945 Cordell Hull (U.S.).
1946 Eamily G. Balch and John Mott (U.S.).
1947 American Friends Service Committee (U.S.) and Br. Society of Friends Service Council (England).
1948 *No award.*
1949 Lord Boyd-Orr (Scotland).
1950 Ralph J. Bunche (U.S.).
1951 Leon Johuaux (France).
1952 Albert Schweitzer (Africa).
1953 George C. Marshall (U.S.).
1954 U. N. High Commissioner for Refugees.
1955 *No Award.*
1956 *No award.*
1957 Lester Pearson (Canada).
1958 G. Henri Pire (Belgium).
1959 Philip Noel-Baker (Eng.).

1960 - No award.

* Refused acceptance.

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KALINGA PRIZE

[*The Kalinga Prize for the popularization of science is offered annually by Mr. B. Patnaik of Orissa through UNESCO. This prize of £ 1000 sterling is offered to the leading writer of science and for strengthening links between India and scientists from all nations*]

1952 Louis de Broglie (France).
1953 Dr. Julian Huxley (Britain).
1954 W. Kaempffert (U.S.).
1955 Dr. August Piy Sunyer (Venezuela).
1956 Prof. G. Gamov (U.S.).
1957 Bertrand Russel (England).
1958 Karl Von Frisch (Austria).
1959 Jean Rostand (France).
1960 Prof.

INDIAN STONES AGAINST PLANETARY ACTIONS

Sun (*Ravi*)	Ruby	Venus (*Sukra*)	Diamond
Mars (*Mangal*)	Coral	Saturn (*Shani*)	Sapphire
Moon (*Chandra*)	Pearl	Ascending Node (*Rahoo*)	Gomed
Mercury (*Budh*)	Emerald	Descending Node (*Ketoo*)	Cat's eye
Jupiter (*Brihaspati*)	Pokraj		

BIRTH STONES

January—*Garnet*—Constancy.
February—*Amethyst*—Sincerity.
March—*Aquamarine, Blue Stone*—Courage.
April—*Diamond*—Innocence.
May—*Emerald*—Love, Success.
June—*Pearl, Alexandrite Moonstone*—Health.
July—*Ruby*—Contentment.
August—*Peridot, Sardonyx*—married happiness.
September—*Sapphire*—clear thinking.
October—*Opal, Tourmaline*—Hope.
November—Tapaz—*Fidelity*.
December—*Turquoise, Zircon*—Prosperity.

ANIMAL AND BIRD RECORDS

Tallest Animal—Giraffe.
Largest land animal—African elephant.
Fastest Bird—Swift, sometimes flies 200 miles per hour.
Largest quadruped of the dog family—Wolf.
Largest animal of the cat family—Lion.
Largest of man-like or anthropoid apes—Gorilla.
Largest of the sea birds—Albatross.
Fastest animal—Cheetah.
Largest and heaviest mammal—Blue Whale.
Smallest Bird—Humming bird.
Longest lived creature—Blue whale (500 years).
Largest of the flat fish—Helibut.
Longest neck—Giraffe.
Largest living bird—Ostrich.
Heaviest bird—Condor.
Largest dog—Mastiff.
Largest bird—Ostrich.
Largest egg—Egg of ostrich.
Largest lizard—Komodo (sometimes 12 ft. long and weighs 250 lb.

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GESTATION PERIOD OF ANIMALS

Ass	.. 380 days	Lion	.. 108 days
Bear	.. 6 months	Man	.. 9 months
Beaver	.. 4 months	Mare	.. 11 months
Camel	.. 13 months	Opossum	.. 26 days
Cat	.. 55 to 63 days	Pig	.. 4 months
Cow	.. 9 months	Puma	.. 15 weeks
Dog	.. 62 days	Rabbit	.. 30 to 40 days
Elephant	.. 20 to 22 months	Rat	.. 28 days
Fox	.. 62 to 63 days	Sheep	.. 5 months
Giraffe	.. 14 months	Squirrel	.. 28 days
Goat	.. 5 months	Tapir	.. 10 to 11 months
Guinea pig	.. 62 days	Wolf	.. 62 to 63 days
Kangaroo	.. 39 days	Whale	.. 11 months

SPEEDS

In Air	*m.p.h.*	*In water*	*m.p.h.*	*On land*	*m.p.h.*
Swift	.. 68	Swimmer	2	Turtle	01
Vulture	.. 89	Pike	1	Rabbit	45
Robin	.. 36	Flying fish	35	Gazelle	60
Swallow	.. 106	Ocean liner	41	White-tailed deer	30
Homing pigeon	45	Light Cruiser	50	Greyhound	36
Duck Hawk	.. 180	Torpedo boat	60	Automobile	394
Golden Eagle	.. 120	Outboard motor boat	74·39	Cheeta	70
Arrow	.. 200	Salmon	7	Chicken	8
Air Liner	.. 346	Sword fish	60	Pig	11
Jet Airplane	1,405	Jet speed boat	248	Man springing	22
Moon rocket	23,450	Turtle	.01	Speed skater	25
		Race horse	42·3	Horse	40
		Rabbit	45	Train	135
		Gazelle	60	Motor Cycle	210

LARGEST SHIPS

	Gross tons	*Overhall length (ft.)*	*Speed (knots)*
Queen Elizabeth (Br.) ..	83,673	1031.0	28½
Queen Mary (Br.) ..	81,237	1019.5	28½
*Universe Apollo (Lib.) ..	72,132	949.8	..
United States (U.S.) ..	53,329	..	29
Liberte (Fr.) ..	51,839	936.8	23½
*Universe Leader (Lib.) ..	51,400	854.8	15
*Universe Commander (Lib.) ..	51,398	854.8	14½
*Universe Challenger (Lib.) ..	51,321	854.8	15
*George Champion (Lib.) ..	51,320	854.8	..
*Harold H. Helm (Lib.) ..	51,320	854.8	..
*Universe Admiral (Lib.) ..	51,320	854.8	15¼
*Universe Defiance (Lib.) ..	51,320	854.8	15
*Princess Sophie (Grc.) ..	43,373	859.2	..

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*Olympic Challenger (Lib.)	.. 40,000	835.0	..
*W. Alton Jones (U.S.A.)	.. 38,270	824.7	..
Windsor Castle (Br.)	.. 38,000	..	..
*Lake Palourde (Lib.)	.. 37,203	810.0	..
*Sansinena (Lib.)	.. 37,203	810.0	..
*Torrey Canyon (Lib.)	.. 37,203	810.0	..
Rotterdam (Neth)	.. 37,000	748.1	..
Nieuw Amsterdam (Neth)	.. 36,640	758.5	21½
Sovietskaya Ukraines (Rus.)	.. 36,000	714.5	..

ATLANTIC BLUE RIBAND

1952 *United States* (U.S.A.)	51,500 tons	3 days 12 hrs. 12m.
1952 *United States* (U.S.A.)	51,500 tons	3 days 10 hrs. 40m.
1938 *Queen Mary* (British)	81,237 tons	3 days 20 hrs. 42m.
1938 *Queen Mary* (British)	81,237 tons	3 days 21 hrs. 45m.
1937 *Normandie* (France)	80,000 tons	3 days 23 hrs. 2m.
1936 *Queen Mary* (British)	81,237 tons	3 days 23 hrs. 57m.
1936 *Queen Mary* (British)	81,237 tons	4 days 0 hrs. 27m.
1935 *Normandie* (France)	80,000 tons	4 days 3 hrs. 2m.

DECORATIONS & MEDALS

Victoria Cross (Great Britain)
Iron Cross (Germany)
Legion of Honour (France)
Croix de Guerre (France)
Victory Medal (U.S.A.)
Military Cross (Belgium)
Medal for Valour (Italy)
Order of the Patriotic War (Soviet Union)
Order of the Rising Sun (Japan)
Param Vir Chakra (India)

WORLD GAZETTEER

(A BRIEF GUIDE TO THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD)

AFGHANISTAN—A mountainous Moslem kingdom, lying between Pakistan, Iran and Soviet Union. Afghanistan runs all the way from Iran eastward to China and forms a long barrier between Soviet Union and Pakistan. The Government is constitutional monarchy. The supreme legislative power is vested in the Parliament consisting of the King, a Senate (43 nominated members) and a National Assembly (171 elected members). There is also a Grand Assembly summoned on important occasions. The laws of Afghanistan are based on the "Shariat" or Islamic law and tribal custom. The main routes to Pakistan pass through the mountains, the chief being Khyber from Kabul and Bolan from Kandahar. The country is mountainous and under-developed. It can be reached only

Oil Tanker.

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by a few high passes. There are no railways and navigable rivers. Afghanistan's rough mountains have prevented the building of railroads. The country is divided into seven major provinces. Each province is under a governor. Languages spoken—*Pushtu & Persian.* Area : 270,000 square miles. Population—13,000,000. Capital—*Kabul.*

ALBANIA—A mountainous Baltic republic in southern Europe bounded by Yugoslavia, Greece and Adriatic Sea, was incorporated with Italy in 1939 but now a free republic. Under 1945 constitution, Albania has a typical Soviet Government. Supreme power is vested in the popularly elected National Assembly, to which the Cabinet, headed by the premier, is responsible. Area : 11,100 sq. m. Population—1,462,000. Capital—*Tirana.*

ANDORRA—A small semi-independent republic on the Franco-Spanish border in the E. Pyrenees under the joint suzerainty of France and Spain. It has enjoyed undisturbed sovereignty since 1278. Area : 175 sq. m. Pop.—5,200. Capital—*Andorra.*

ARAB STATES—A peninsula in south-west Asia inhabited by Arabs, was a single political unit ; now comprises the following States —Aden Colony (British), Aden Protectorate, Bahrein Islands (Sultanate, Kuwait (Sheikdom) Oman and Masqat (Sultanate), Quatar (Sheikdom), Saudi Arabia (Kingdom), Trucial Coast (Sheikdoms), Yemen (Kingdom).

Saudi-Arabia—is the most important State of the peninsula, occupying nearly four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula. It consists of Nejd, Hejaz and its dependencies. Saudi Arabia is a nearly absolute Monarchy. A Council of Ministers headed by Prime Minister rules the country. The country contains the holy places of Islam—*Medina* where lies the tomb of Mohamed and *Mecca*, the birth place of the Prophet, which contains a great mosque. Area : 617,760 sq. m. Population—6,500,000. Capitals—*Riyadh* and *Mecca.*

Sheikdom of Kuwait—is an independent Arab Sheikdom. It extends along the shore of the Persian—Gulf from Iraq to Saudi-Arabia with an area of 5,800 sq. m. The principality has one of the world's richest oil reserves. Capital—*Kuwait.*

Sultanate of Oman and Masqat—occupies the mountainous eastern corner of Arabia. The State is best known for its date cultivation. Capital—*Mascut.*

Qatar—occupies the whole of the Qatar peninsula in the Persian Gulf. It is ruled under British protection by a Sheik. Capital—*Doha.*

Sheikdoms of Trucial Coast—extend along part of the Gulf of Oman and southern coast of Persian Gulf. It is ruled by seven independent Sheikhs.

Kingdom of Yemen—is an independent state, occupying the south-western extremity of Aratra. Capital—*Taiz.*

Aden—is a British colony and protectorate situated on the volcanic southern tip of the Arabian peninsula along the Gulf of Aden. The 20-odd sultans who rule their respective territories in the protectorate are responsible to the British Governor of Aden.

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Baherein Islands—These islands form an archipelago in the Persian Gulf and are independent. The islands are important for their oil, pearl, fisheries and strategic position. Area : 213 sq. m. Capital—*Manama.*

ARGENTINA—Second largest South American Republic. It is a Federal Union of twenty-two provinces and one federal district. The constitution is modelled on that of U.S.A. but each province enjoys a large measure of autonomy. The executive is in the hands of the President, who selects his Cabinet. The National Congress consists of a Senate of 46 members and of a Chamber of Deputies popularly elected. Argentina is regarded as the most important nation in Latin America, besides Brazil. Economically it is the most developed of all ; it has 43 p.c. of the foreign trade of South America, 54 p.c. of all South American railroads and 55 p.c. of all automobiles. Argentina is a world leader in wheat, corn, flaxseed ; alfalfa grown for feed to suport huge heads of cattle is the main crop ; it also leads in beef, mutton, hides and wool. The language is Spanish. Area: 1,079,965 sq. m. Pop.—20,256,000. Capital—*Buenos Aires.*

AUSTRALIA—is a self-governing member of the British Commonwealth of Nations and is a federal union of eight states—Tasmania, Western Australia, Queensland, Northern Territory, South Australia, New South Wales, Victoria and Australian Capital Territory. The government is that of a Federal Commonwealth within the British Commonwealth of Nations, the executive power being vested in the Sovereign (through the Governor-General), assisted by a Federal Ministry. Australia is primarily an agricultural country ; one of the world's greatest producers of wheat and wool, but industrialisation has been extensive. There is much unique flora, e.g., giant eucalyptus, and fauna, e.g., kangaroo, wallaby and wambat, platypus, sping anteater, koala bear and many unusual birds. Wool is Australia's greatest primary industry which produces 27 p.c. of the world's wool and 57 per cent of its marino wool. Australia is also one of the largest producers of wheat. Area : 3,000,000 sq. m. Pop.—9,846,000. Capital—*Canberra.*

AUSTRIA—After World War II Austria was divided into four zones (British, American, French and Russian) by the occupying powers. The United States and Great Britain removed Austria from the ranks of enemy states by declaring the Austrians a "liberated people." Austria finally regained her independence on May 14, 1955, by a separate treaty ending seventeen years of occupation, but only after long and difficult negotiations. She was admitted to full membership in the United Nations in December, 1955.

The Federal Republic of Austria is composed of nine provinces including Vienna. The President is elected by the people directly for a term of six years. The bicameral legislature consists of the *Bundesrat,* with fifty members chosen by the provincial assemblies and the *Nationalrat,* with 165 members popularly elected. The Chancellor and his Cabinet are responsible for governmental administration. Austria is primarily an industrial country, with 40 p.c. of the population engaged in industry. Area : 32,388 sq. m. Pop.—6,997,000. Capital—*Vienna.*

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BELGIUM—North-west European Kingdom. Government is consitutional hereditary monarchy with a bicameral legislature consisting of the King, the Senate, and the Chamber of Deputies. Belgium is the most densely populated country in Europe. Belgium is also a great colonial power. The Senate is partly directly and partly indirectly elected for 4 years. Total area : 11,779 sq. m. Pop.—8,896,000. Capital—*Brussels.*

BHUTAN—Bhutan is a small semi-independent State lying on the south-east slope of the Himalayas, bordered on the north by Tibet and on the east, south and west by the Indian Union. The inhabitants are Mongolians and follow Buddhism. Agriculture is the chief industry. The country is governed by the hereditary king. A treaty signed with India in August, 1949 increased India's subsidy to Bhutan and placed Bhutan's foreign affairs under Indian control. Area : 18,000 sq. m. Pop.—700,000. Religion : Buddhism. Capital *Punakha.*

BOLIVIA—South American Republic located in the west central portion of the South America. It is the world's greatest producer of tin after Malaya and has also large antimony and silver deposits. Bolivia is a Republic, electing by popular vote a President every four years. The National Congress consists of a Senate of 18 members elected for 6 years and a Chamber of Deputies of 68 members. The President appoints the 10 members of his Cabinet. Area : 419,470 sq. ft. m. Pop.—3,235,000. Capital—*La Paz.*

BRAZIL—By far the largest and the most populous country in South America and occupies nearly half of it. Brazil is a federation of twenty States, five territories and one federal district. The President is popularly elected for a five-year term. The National Congress is composed of two houses—the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. Brazil leads the world in the production of coffee and castor beans and ranks second in cacoa. The coffee crop represents three-quarters of the world's supply. The language is Portuguese with many dialects. Area : 3,285,318 sq. m. Pop.—61,000,000. Language : Portuguese. Religion : Roman Catholic. Capital—*Brasilia.*

BULGARIA—Balkan Republic. The constitution of 1947 modelled after that of Soviet Union provides that the unicameral National Assembly is the supreme organ of the State. The legislation has enacted complete state ownership or control of industry, banking, foreign and internal trade and collectivization of agriculture. The Assembly elects a 15-member presidium, the President of which is the nominal chief of State ; government administration is carried on by the Premier and his cabinet who are responsible to the Assembly. Area : 42,848 sq. m. Population—7,629,254. Capital—*Sofia.*

BURMA—Burma's independence from Great Britain became effective on Jan. 4, 1948. A Constituent Assembly was elected on April 9, 1947, and the Constitution adopted on Sept. 24, 1947. The Constitution provides for a government headed by the President, who is elected by the two houses of Parliament, meeting in a joint session. The Union Parliament elected for four-year terms, consists of the Chamber of Deputies and a Chamber of Nationalities.

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With the Burma proper it has four frontier areas—Shan, Kachin, Karen and Karenni States and the Chin Special Division. Due to continued political unrest Karen State was formally inaugurated in June 1954. The principal productions are teakwood, rice, cotton, maize, tobacco, tin, silver and petroleum. The rubies, sapphires and jade found in Burma, are unsurpassed in quality. It is the largest rice-exporting country in the world. The area : 261, 789 sq. miles. Population—19,856,000 (1959). Capital—*Rangoon.*

CAMAROONS—The French Camaroons became independent on January 1, 1960. It was a former German Colony which had come under U. N. Trusteeship and were being administered in two parts by Britain and France respectively. In 1958 France offered independence to the area administered by her and the United Nations terminated the trusteeship on Jan. 1, 1960 and the French Camaroons became independent assuming the name of the Republic of Camaroons. Area 143,415 sq. m. Population 3,187,000· Capital —*Yaounde.*

CAMBODIA—It is a constitutional monarchy in southern Asia, which with Vietnam and Laos comprised the former associated states of French Indo-China. It formally declared its independence from French on September 25, 1955. From 1949 to 1954 Cambodia was an Associate State of the French Union. It gained its independence in 1955. Area : 67,568 sq. m. Population—4,600,000. Capital— *Pnom Penh.*

CANADA—is an independent and sovereign member of the British Commonwealth of Nations with the second continuous land area in the world, stretching across the northern part of the north American continent. It is a federal union of 10 provinces whose powers are laid down in British North America Act of 1867. The executive powers rest nominally in the hands of the Governor-General who represents the English queen. Actually Governor-General acts only with the advice of the Prime Minister and members of the Cabinet. The Parliament has two houses—a Senate and a House of Commons. Canada exports newsprint, wood-pulp, wood, fish and fishery products, aluminium, copper, nickel and gram. Canada leads the world in production of asbestos, nickel and platinum ; ranks second in aluminium, gold and zinc and fourth in copper and lead. Of special interest is the uranium ore mined in the northern Canada, one of the only two places so far known in the world where raw material for atomic energy can be mined easily. Canadian fishing is the most extensive and prolific in the world. It has two official languages, English and French. Area : 3,845,744 sq. miles. Population—17,048,000 (1955). Capital— *Ottawa.*

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC—This independent republic has been constituted with former French Congo and Gabon on August, 1960.

CENTRAL AFRICAN FEDERATION—The Federation stretching for more than 1,000 miles south from the borders of Tanganyika to the northern rim of the Union of South Africa ; is composed of three units. Northern and Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland. In structure, the Federation is unusual, because Southern Rhodesia a

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a self-governing colony, while Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia are Protectorates controlled by the British Colonial Office. Southern Rhodesia is governed by an elected legislative assembly headed by a Prime Minister. The two Protectorates have legislatures in which European members predomenate.

The Federal Government which came into existence under the constitution in 1953, has an assembly of 35 members from Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nayasaland. Capital of Northern Rhodesia : *Lusaka* ; Capital of Nayasaland : *Zomba* ; Capital of Southern Rhodesia : *Salisbury.*

CEYLON—The island of Ceylon lies in the Indian Ocean, 13 miles off the southern tip of India at its closest point. It is now an independent republic within the Commonwealth. The constitution provides for a Parliament composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives and the Queen (represented by the Governor-General). The administration is in the hands of the Cabinet of Ministers headed by the Prime Minister and responsible to the legislature. Buddhism is the religion of the majority. There are more than 1,610,000 Hindus. Area : 25,332 sq. m. Population—9,300,000. Capital—*Colombo.*

CHAD REPUBLIC—A member of the French Community which proclaimed independence from France on 12th August, 1960. Chad Republic is in the heart of Africa. Its main products are cotton, rice and cattle, population ; 2,721,000 ; capital : *Fort Lamby.*

CHILE—A democratic State lies on the west coast of South America. In Chile, the only natural nitrate in the world is found. So sixty per cent of the world's iodine is obtained as a by-product of nitrate processing. World's second largest copper producer is Chile. Official language is Spanish. There is a National Congress consisting of a Senate of 45 members elected for eight years and a Chamber of Deputies with 147 members, elected for four years. The President is elected for six years by direct popular vote. In the northern desert provinces the only natural nitrate in the world is found. Area : 296,717 sq. in. Population—7,211,000. Capital—*Santiago.*

CHINA—China is now divided into two parts with the *Republic of China* limited to Taiwan (Formosa) and the mainland under the Communist regime known as *People's Republic of China.*

The *Nationalist China* is now confined to Formosa since 1950. It is an island of 110 miles off the mainland of China. Under the constitution of 1947, the highest state organ is the National Assembly. It is the sovereign organ of the people.

Formosa—a large island off the south-eastern coast of China. It was a part of Chinese Empire but occupied by Japan. In the second World War, United States and U. K. promised to restore this island to China. In 1945, China led by Chiang Kai-shek was allowed to occupy and administer the island. When in 1949 the Communist Party in China became the ruling power, Chiang was forced to flee to Formosa where he established the so-called Nationalist Government of China with the support of U.S. In spite of the repeated protests of the People's Republic of China. U. S. declared that any invasion of this island or of nearby islands would have to get past the U. S.

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Seventh Fleet. U. K. has given *de jure* recognition to the Chinese People's Republic but U. S. recognises only the Government of Chiang Kai-shek. The island is maintained by the unlimited military aid of U. S. A. Area : 13,890 sq. m. Population—7,591,298. Capital—*Taipei.*

The *People's Republic of China* which controls the entire mainland was proclaimed in Peiping (Peking) on September 1949 after the defeat of the Nationalist armies under Chiang Kai-shek. The communists set up a soviet-type government. The People's Republic and the Soviet Union signed a 30-year treaty of friendship and mutual aid on February 14, 1950. The Constitution of the People's Republic adopted by the National People's Congress on Sept. 1954 established the Congress as the highest organ of State power. Executive power is vested in the Chairman or President elected for 4-year term by the Congress. He appoints the Premier and his cabinet. The Cabinet is the highest administrative organ. Effective control is exercised by the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party. Pop.—621,225,000. Capital—*Peiping.*

COLOMBIA—South American Republic lies in the extreme north-west of South America, having a coast line on both the Atlantic and the Pacific. Colombia's Congress consists of a popularly elected Senate and House of Representatives, the former with a four-year term and the latter with a two-year term. Area : 447,536 sq. m. Pop—13,000,000. Capital—*Bagota.*

CONGO—Congo became Africa's one of the newest sovereign States on 30th June 1960, when 75 years of Belgian colonial rule ended for 900,000 sq. miles of territory and its 14 million people. It is the second largest African State in size. Area : 905,582 sq. m. Capital—*Leopoldiville.*

COSTA RICA—is an independent republic in the southern part of Central America between Necaragua and Panama. The Government of Costa Rica is republican, democratic and representative. Government functions are exercised through four semi-independent but interrelated branches : the Executive, the Legislative (Single Chamber), Judiciary and the Electoral Organisation. Area : 32,000 sq. m. Pop.—1,081,300. Capital—*San Jose.*

CUBA—an independent Central American State, is the largest island in the West Indies. It is the largest cane-sugar producer in the world. Tobacco ranks second in importance. The constitution was modelled on that of the U.S.A. and provided for a President, a Vice-President, a Senate and a House of Representatives. Area : 44,400

But a revolution led by Fidel Castro overthrew the Government on Jan. 1, 1959 and a provisional government was set up and elections were promised within four years Area : 44,400 sq. m. Population—6,241,166. Capital—*Havana.*

CYPRUS—An island in the Mediterranean Sea whose long bloody rebellion well-remembered rebellion is well-remembered, finally reached an agreement with Britain and became independent in August, 1960.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA—A central European republic formed in 1918 as one of the succession states of the Austro-Hungarian

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Empire ; it then comprised Bohemia, Moravia with Austrian Silesia, Slovakia and Ruthenia. Ruthenia was, however, ceded to Russia in 1945. In 1948, after the establishment of the People's Republic, the old provinces were abolished and the country was divided into 19 regions. It has a Soviet-type constitution, promulgated on June 8, 1948. There is a unicameral Parliament, the supreme organ of the State, with control over Courts and Civil Service. The Government is headed by the President, elected by Parliament for a seven-year term and the Prime Minister and his Cabinet, who are appointed by the President but are responsible to the Parliament. The constitution contains guarantees of civil liberties and provides that the state shall conduct all economic activity in the public interest on the basis of single economic plan. Czechoslovakia possesses one of the richest territories in Europe, both in the matter of natural resources and industrial development. Area : 49,380 sq. m. Pop.—13,272000. Capital.—*Prague* (*Praha*).

DENMARK—Denmark is a constitutional monarchy—the oldest kingdom of Europe. The Danish Parliament (*the Folketing*) has 179 members. Since 1915, women enjoy political rights equally with men.

Agriculture is all-out important to the Danish economy. Farm products (butter, bacon, cheese, eggs) are Denmark's most important export articles. Industry and handicrafts employ more workers than agriculture and Denmark has developed a substantial export of machinery of many kinds, manufactured consumers goods, etc. Denmark's foreign trade is the largest in the world per head of population. Denmark's social services are highly developed. Greenland, world's largest island, is a part of Denmark. Area : 840,000 sq. miles; Capital—*Copenhagen.*

DOMINICIAN REPUBLIC—an independent Central American State, sharing the Caribbean island of Hispaniola with Haiti. It lies east of Cuba between the Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea. It is governed by President and a Congress consisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. Area : 19,332 sq. m. Pop.—2,693,914 Capital—*Cuidad Trujillo.*

DONOMY—This French colony of Africa became independent on 1st August, 1960.

EL SALVADOR—is the smallest of the six Central American Republics and the only one without an Atlantic Sea coast. Area : 8,259 sq. m. Population—2,268,000. Capital—*San Salvador.*

EQUADOR—A republic in the Pacific coast of South America. Equador is the world's chief source of the supply of balsa, a light wood. It exports more bananas than any other country. Area : 116,270 sq. m. Population—4,080,000. Capital—*Quito.*

ETHIOPIA—An independent empire in East Africa, official name *Ethiopia.* The Emperor directly controls the government, though there, are a Council of Ministers, a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. All members are appointed by the monarch. The actual form of government is thus the personal rule of the Emperor. *Eritrea,* a country of E. Africa, a former Italian Colony, was federated with Ethiopia in 1952. Area : 457,142 sq. m. Population : about 20,000,000. Capital—*Adis Ababa.*

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FINLAND—A republic in N.-W. Europe, became an independent State in 1917 ; fringed by islands and dotted with lakes the State was an autonomous Russian State, but became an independent State on July 29, 1917 and a republic in 1919. Under the constitution there is a single Chamber composed of 200 members, elected by universal suffrage. The legislative power is vested in the Chamber and the President. The highest executive power is held by the President who is elected for a period of six years. One of the chief occupations in Finland is lumbering : articles made from wood include matches, constructional timber, paper and cellulose. The President is chosen for a term of six years. Area : 130,148 sq. m. Pop.—4,375,340. Capital—*Helsinki.*

FRANCE—A republic of Western Europe, bordering on Spain in the S.-W. Italy, Switzerland and Germany in the E., Belgium and Luxemburg in the N.-E., and facing the Mediterranean, Atlantic Ocean and English Channel on the S., W., and N. respectively.

Fourth Republic—By a referendum on October 13, 1946, France adopted a new constitution. It established two houses of Parliament: the *National Assembly* and the *Council of the Republic.* But the political situation of France did not improve with the Fourth Republic. It gradually deteriorated and came to a head in the spring of 1958 with severe political upheaval in Algeria and resurgence of Gaullism at home. The National Assembly declared a state of emergency in May 1958.

Fifth Republic was inaugurated on October 5, 1958 after the approval by a popular referendum on September 28, 1958. The President of the Republic is elected for 7 years by an enlarged electoral college made up of members of Parliament, departmental and municipal councillors, representatives of the assemblies of Overseas Territories and additional electors chosen by the mayors and municipal councillors. The President appoints a Prime Minister and the Cabinet is responsible to Parliament. The President has the right to dissolve the National Assembly or to ask Parliament for reconsideration of a law. The Parliament consists of two Houses : National Assembly and the Senate. Area : 212,736 sq. miles ; Pop. 44,300,000. Capital—*Paris.*

GERMANY—As a consequence of unconditional surrender on May 8, 1945, the Governments of the United States, the Soviet Union, Great Britain and France assumed full executive power in Germany. Germany was divided into four zones of occupation under American, British, French and Soviet Control. The four occupying powers pledged themselves to treat Germany as an economic entity and to safeguard parallel political developments in the four zones towards restoration of truly democratic institutions. But the efforts to unify Germany were totally unsuccessful and the western powers were unable to agree with U.S.S.R. on any fundamental issues. So the *Federal Republic of Germany* was formed on the initiative of the three western occupation powers.

The *Federal Republic of Germany* came into formal existence on September 1, 1949 when Allied High Commission transferred to it the administration of the U. S., British and French Zones of occupation

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of Germany. On May 23, 1949 the German Constituent Assembly at Bonn enacted the constitution for Western Germany.

By the constitution, Republic was given full legislative, executive and judicial powers, but not in respect of such matters as armaments, reparations, decartelization, foreign affairs, the admission of refugees and other matters. The London and Paris agreements were ratified by the three occupying powers on 5th May, 1955. Under the Agreements the Republic attained full sovereignty and independence, though American, British and French Forces were given permission to remain on German territory. Under the constitution, there is a Federal Diet elected by the universal suffrage for a term of four years and a Federal Council. Area : 94,719 sq. m. Population—52,150,000. Capital—*Bonn.*

German Democratic Republic comprises Soviet zone of occupation of Eastern Germany. It was proclaimed on Oct. 7, 1949 with its seat at Berlin on the basis of a Constitution adopted on May 30, 1949 by a People's Congress. The Constitution is Soviet in nature. Under a treaty between the German Democratic Republic and the U.S.S.R. in 1955, the Republic became a Sovereign State and was given complete freedom to decide all questions concerning its internal and foreign policy. Area : 42,112 sq. m. Population—18,000,000. Capital—*Berlin.*

GHANA—Ghana (former Gold Coast Colony), which became an independent State within British Commonwealth, on March, 6, 1957, became a sovereign unitary republic on 1st July, 1960. The Head of the State is a President upon whom is conferred the executive power. The legislative power is conferred on Parliament which consists of the President and the National Assembly. The National Assembly consists of the Speaker and 104 members. It is composed of Eastern Region, Western Region, Transvolta-Togoland, Ashanti and Northern Territories. It is situated in western Africa. Area : 91,843 sq. miles. Population—4,691,000. Capital—*Accra.*

GREAT BRITAIN & NORTHERN IRELAND—The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland comprising England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Island of Man and the Channel Islands, lies on the north-west corner of Europe. Parliament is the legislative body for the United Kingdom with certain powers over the dependent Empire but none over the Dominions. It consists of two houses — the House of Lords and the House of Commons. United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy with a queen and a Parliament. Supreme legislative power is vested in Parliament. The executive power of the Crown is exercised by the Cabinet, headed by the Prime Minister. Great Britain is second only to U.S.A. among the industrial nations of the world. Most important manufactures are heavy goods, such as, machinery, tools, bridges and locomotives. Area. 94,214 sq. m. Population—51,445,000. Capital—*London.*

GREECE—is conditional hereditary monarchy, located at Balkan peninsula, stretching down into the Mediterranean Sea. Nominal executive power is vested in the King but the Government is administered by the Council of Ministers, headed by the

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Premier who must enjoy the Assembly's confidence. Area : 51,182 sq. m. Pop.—8,696,000. Capital—*Athens.*

GUATEMALA—A republic of Central America. Area : 42,042 sq. m. Pop.—3,300,000. Capital—*Guatemala.*

GUINEA—Previously a part of French West Africa, Guinea achieved independence by rejecting in September, 1958, the new Constitution of the French Fifth Republic. In October 2, 1958 the Territorial Assembly of French Guinea proclaimed the independent Republic of Guinea. In December 1958 Guinea was admitted into full membership of the United Nations. Area : 94,925 sq. m.; population : 2,506,852. Capital—*Conakry.*

HAITI—It occupies the western third of the island known as Hispaniola, the second largest of the Greater Antilles lying between Cuba on the west and Puerto Rico on the east. It is the only Negro Republic within western hemisphere. Area : 10,700 sq. m. Pop.—3,500,000. Capital—*Port-au-Prince.*

HONDURAS—A republic of Central America on Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The chief commercial activity is the cultivation of bananas and coconuts on the Atlantic coast. Bananas constitute about sixty per cent of the total value of exports. Area : 43,277 sq. m. Population—1,822,000. Capital—*Tegucigalpa.*

HUNGARY—A European republic formed out of Austdo-Hungary; it is the abode of the Magyars. The Soviet type of constitution was adopted by the Parliament on August 18, 1949, which declared Hungary to be a 'People's Republic.' The supreme organ of State control was declared to be the Parliament with Deputies elected for 4 years by direct vote. When Parliament is not in session, power is exercised by the Presidium, headed by the Chairman. Executive power is vested in the Cabinet, headed by the Premier. Hungary's bauxite deposits are considered one of the largest in the world. Area : 35,905 sq. m. Population—9,800,000. Capital—*Budapest.*

ICELAND—An island in the North-Atlantic Ocean, now a republic; it is close to Arctic circle in the North Atlantic ; constitutionally, the President is elected for four years by popular vote. Executive power of the State resides in the Prime Minister and his Cabinet. The Althing (Parliament) is composed of two houses. Iceland has no army or navy but under NATO and a 1951 agreement, U.S.A. maintains on the island army, navy and air forces. Area : 39,709 sq. m. Pop.—166,831. Capital—*Reykjavik.*

INDIA—The Union of India came into being on August 15, 1947, when under the Indian Independence Act passed by the British Parliament in July 1957, the former Indian Empire was divided into two dominions of India and Pakistan, both of which were granted full self-government. On January 26, 1950, a new Constitution was adopted, which established India as a 'Sovereign Democratic Republic.' Area : 12,59,765 sq. m. Pop.—356,891,624. Capital—*New Delhi.*

IRELAND—is now a sovereign independent and democratic State from 1937 and the constitution affirms the right of the Irish nation to choose its own form of government; to determine its relations with other nations and to develop its life in accordance with its own genius and traditions. The head of the State is the President

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elected by the direct vote for 7 years. The Parliament consists of the President and two houses : *Dail Eireann* elected by the universal suffrage and proportional representation and the *Senate* of 60 members. Area : 27,137 sq. m. Pop.—2,898,264. Capital—*Dublin.*

INDONESIA—is a republic of S. E. Asia comprising territory formerly known as the Dutch East Indies. Indonesia comprises four large islands of Java, Sumatra, most of Borneo and Celebes, fifteen minor islands including Madura, the Moluccas and Bali and thousands of small ones. Ninety per cent of the population are Muslims. Indonesia is one of the richest countries in natural resources. There are vast supplies of tin, oil and coal, and sizable deposits of bauxite, manganese, copper, nickel, gold and silver. It is the principal producer of petroleum in the Far East and rivals Malaya in its output of rubber and tin. It also exports coffee, tea, sugar, copra and rice. From the early part of the 17th century much of the Indonesia Archipelago was under Netherlands rule. Following the World War 1939-45, a strong nationalist movement manifested itself and after sporadic fighting the formal transfer of sovereignty took place on Dec. 27, 1949. The provisional federal constitution then adopted on August 15, 1950 was changed to a unitary Republic of Indonesia. The agreement with Netherlands in 1945 was unilaterally abrogated. On Feb. 15, 1958 regional discontent came to a head with the proclamation of a rival Indonesian Government in West Sumatra and North Celebes. The Central Government resorted to military organisation and organised resistance had ceased in Sumatra by May, 1958. On July 5, 1959, the President issued a decree dissolving the Constituent Assembly and declared re-application of 1945 constitution. Area : 735,865 sq. m. Population—82,500,000. Capital—*Jakarta.*

IRAN—A kingdom of Western Asia, also known as Persia. Iran is a constitutional monarchy. Executive power is exercised by a Cabinet headed by the Prime Minister, who is appointed by the Shah and is responsible to the *Majlis* (Parliament), which has 136 popularly-elected members. The Shah has power to dissolve the Majlis. Iranian oil field in the south-west territory at the head of the Persian Gulf is the richest single field in existence. Area : 636,293 sq. m. Population—19,723,000. Capital—*Tehran.*

ISRAEL—This Jewish State in Palestine was established in 1948 in fulfilment of the aspirations of Zionism and following a decision of U.N. Assembly on the partition of Palestine between Jews and Arabs. Israel is a democratic State. It occupies the major portion of Palestine. It lies on the western edge of Asia, bordering on the Mediterranean Sea. On Nov. 2, 1917, British Government made a declaration, known as *Balfour Declaration,* which viewed with favour the establishment in Palestine of a home for the Jewish people. This principle was incorporated in the mandate to Britain, which came into force in 1923. The British mandate on Palestine ended at mid-night on May 14, 1948 when the Jewish National Council proclaimed a Jewish State of Israel. This led to the war against Israel by Arab States. But armistice agreement was signed under U.N.

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auspices, which left Israel as an independent State. The declaration of independence of the Jewish National Council on May 14, 1948 stated that the new nation would be "based on the precepts of liberty, justice and peace taught by the Hebrew prophets." Israel is a parliamentary democracy. Supreme authority is vested in one-chamber Parliament called the 'Knesset' (Assembly) with 120 members. The Cabinet is responsible to the Knesset and holds office as long as it enjoys the confidence of the Knesset. Area : 8,048 sq. m. Population—2,080,000. Capital—*Jerusalem.*

IRAQ—An Arab Kingdom in the Middle East, formerly known as Mesopotamia ; now one of the states lying between Arabia and Iran, created as a result of World War I when under the treaty of Lousanne (1923), Turkey renounced the sovereignty over Mesopotamia. A revolution took place in July 1958 when the monarchy was overthrown and Iraq was declared a republic. Republican form of Government was established. Iraq is one of the great oilproducing countries of the world. Oil revenues represent more than one-third of the national income. Other products are wheat, barley, beans, rice and eighty per cent of world's dates. Area : 171,599 sq. m. Population—6,274,475. Capital—*Bagdad.*

ITALY—A republic of Europe, stretching from the Alps southeast into the Mediterranean with the islands of Sicily, Sardania, Elba and 70 smaller ones : under Italy's new Constitution of 1948 the State is described as a "democratic republic founded on work." Sovereignty belongs to the people who exercises it in the forms and within the limits of the constitution. The President is elecetd for seven years by Parliament in joint session with regional delegates. The Cabinet headed by the Premier and nominated by the President, must enjoy the confidence of Parliament which is composed of the Chamber of Deputies, popularly elected for a five-year term and the Senate. Italy is ordinarily the world's largest producer of mercury ; it is also an important producer of sulphur. Area : 116,316 sq. m. Population—48,635,000. Capital —*Rome.*

JAPAN—An island empire of Asia which is situated in the North Pacific Ocean off the coast of China and Siberia. It consists of four main islands : Honshu (mainland), Hokaido, Kyushu and Shikoku. A new constitution was promulgated on Nov. 3, 1946 and became effective in May 1947. It contains many radical changes. Among the most important innovations are the abandonment of the doctrine of Imperial Divinity, the renunciation of war and the establishment of Supreme Court. The legislative authority rests with the *Diet* which is bicameral, consisting of a *House of Representatives* and a *House of Councillors*, both houses being composed of elected members. The executive authority is vested in the Cabinet which is responsible to the legislature. The Japanese peace treaty came into force on April 28, 1952. Japan hereupon resumed her status as a sovereign and independent power. Area : 142,804 sq. m. Population—91,760,000. Capital—*Tokio.*

JORDAN (Hashemite Kingdom of)—was formerly known as

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Trans-Jordan, is an independent state of western Asia ; formerly also it was an Arab State in the Palestine mandate. Conquered from the Turks by the British, in World War I, Jordan was separated from the Palestine mandate in 1929 and placed, in 1921, under the rule of Abdulla ibn Hussain. In 1923 Britain recognised Jordan's independence, subject to the mandate. During World War II, Jordan cooperated completely with Britain. On March 22, 1946, Britain abolished the mandate and recognised the full and complete independence of Jordan. Under the new constitution of 1952, legislative power is vested in the republican form of Government. Area : 37,000 sq. m. Population : 1,595,000. Capital—*Amman.*

KOREA—An East Asiatic country on a peninsula between Manchuria and Japan. It was a vassal of China for 500 years and was annexed by Japan in 1910. During the World War II at the Cairo Conference in 1953, the Allied powers agreed that Korea should be free and independent. After the end of the World War II, at the Postsdam Conference in 1945, the 38th Parallel of latitude was designated as the line dividing the Soviet and the American occupation. All the efforts to unite these two parts of Korea failed. South Korea formed the *Republic of Korea* in May 1948 when U.S.A. handed over the Government to them.

On May 1, 1958 the communists formed the *People's Democratic Republic of Korea* in North Korea with the capital at Pyongyang. On June 25, 1950 North Korean Army invaded South Korea. The U. N. Security Council demanded the immediate withdrawal of the North Korea Army. U.S.A. entered the war in support of South Korea Army. The truce talks between the parties continued in 1952 and 1953 amid sporadic hostilities. An armistice was signed finally at Panmunjom on July 27, 1953. The armistice contemplated an international political conference on the status of Korea but negotiations for arranging it broke down. The question was discussed without result at the Geneva Conference on Far Eastern problems (April 26—June 19, 1954).

South Korea is a republic with legislative powers vested in a bicameral parliament and executive power in a popularly elected President and a Cabinet headed by a Premier. North Korea is a typical Soviet State under the constitution adopted on Sept. 2, 1948.

LAOS—An independent State, formerly belonged to the French Indo-China. It is situated in the north-west Indo-China. Laos is a constitutional monarchy of Thai origin in south-eastern Asia, one of the three former French Indo-Chinese states. Laos became an independent sovereign State within the French Union by a treaty of July 19, 1949 but the relationship is not clearly defined. Area 91,506 sq. m. Population—1,655,000. Capital—*Vientiane.*

LEBANON—The Republic of Lebanon is in the Levant. It occupies a strip of land along the Mediterranean coast, sandwiched between Israel in the south and Syria in the north and east. This Arab State was formed from the five former Turkish Empire districts of North Lebanon, Mount Lebanon, South Lebanon, Beirut and Bekaa. Along with Syria, it became an independent State in 1920. Both were administered under French Mandate till 1941. Lebanon

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is a free democratic country with a popularly elected Government. It is governed by a President elected by Parliament for a six-year term and a Cabinet of ministers appointed by the President but responsible to Parliament, which has 44 members with a population of less than 1.5 million. Lebanon is the smallest Arab State. The population of the Arab State is half Christian and half Moslem. Area : 4,000 sq. m. Pop.—1,525,000. Capital—*Beirut.*

LIBERIA—An independent Negro Republic of West Africa on the Guinea Coast. Liberia was founded in 1820 by the American Colonization Society as a country for freed slaves from U.S.A. and became independent republic in 1847. The Government is modelled after that of the United States. Area : 43,000 sq. m. Population—2,750,000. Capital—*Monrovia.*

LIECHTENSTEIN—is an independent Alpine, principally between Austria and Switzerland. The constitution of 1921 provides for a legislature of 15 members, elected by direct universal suffrage. Area : 62 sq. m. Pop.—14,757. Capital—*Vaduz.*

LIBYA—A kingdom of North Africa comprising Tripolitania, Cyrenacia and Fezzan with a Mediterranean coast line of nearly 1000 miles between Egypt and Tunisia and stretching appoximately the same distance south to the Sahara. In 1912 an Italo-Turkish war left Libya in Italian hands. After the Italian defeat of 1943, Tripoli and Cyrenaica remained under British and Fezzan under French military government. In comformity with a resolution of the General Assembly of U.N. on Nov. 21, 1949, Libya became on Dec. 24, 1951 the first independent State created by the United Nations. Libya has a federal form of government and a hereditary monarchy. Government is by a two-chamber Parliament. Area : 679,358 sq. m. Population—1,340,000. Joint capitals—*Tripoli and Bengazi.*

LUXEMBURG, GRAND DUCHY OF—Luxemburg is a European Grand Duchy situated between Germany, Belgium and France. It was given its present rank as principality by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Area : 999 sq. m. Pop.—315,000. Capital—*Luxemburg.*

MALAYA, FEDERATION OF—The Federation of Malaya became a sovereign constitutional monarchy within the Commonwealth of Nations recognising the Queen as the head of the Commonwealth, which was effective on August 31, 1957. It is the only free nation in the Commonwealth other than Great Britain to have its own monarch. It is composed of nine sovereign Malaya States and the former British Straits Settlements colonies of Penang Island and Malacca occupying the Malaya Peninsula in South-East Asia. The States included in the Federation are—Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Pahang, Johore, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan, Trengganu, Malacca and Penang. The Constitution provides for a constitutional Supreme Head of the Federation to be elected for a term of 5 years by Malay rulers from among their number. The Federation is largely a producer of raw materials, chief of which are tin, rubber, palm and coconut oil, copra. The world's richest source of tin centre is Perak, supplying about one-third of the world's total. The legislative authority is vested in a Parliament consisting of the Supreme Head

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of the State, a Senate and a House of Representatives. Area : 50,690 sq. miles. Population—6,277,000. Capital—*Kuala Lumpur.*

MALI FEDERATION—This Federation consisting of Senegal and the Sudanese Republic in Africa was declared independent in 1960.

MALAGASY REPUBLIC—Madagascar, the world's fourth largest island became independent in 1960. Malagasy Republic, remains in the French Community. In return, France has promised to continue economic aid.

MEXICO—A Federal democratic republic of 29 states, 2 territories and the federal district of Mexico city. President is elected for six years and is ineligible to succeed himself, governs with a Cabinet of ministers. The Federal Congress has two houses—*Chamber of Deputies and Senate.* Mexico has a great mineral wealth and produces petroleum, silver, gold, copper, lead, quicksilver, iron and coal. She is the world leader for the production of silver, sisal, hemp and chicle for chewing gum. Area : 760,373 sq. m. Population—32,348,000. Capital—*Mexico City.*

MONACO—A tiny independent principality in the south of France, is located on the Mediterranean with land frontiers, joining France at every point. It is noted for an exceptionally mild climate and magnificent scenery. It is the smallest State in the world. Area : 0.50 sq. m. Pop.—20,422. Capital—*Monaco.*

MONGOLIAN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC—It is in north Central Asia. It is bordered by China on the west, south and east and by USSR on the north. The republic, which comprises more than one-half the area of Mongolia, is unofficially called Outer Mongolia. The area was under Chinese control from the late 17th century until 1921, when a revolt aided by the USSR deposed the Chinese authorities. In 1924 the present republic was constituted, but China did not recognise its independence until 1945. As the country, under a Soviet form of Government, became increasingly socialistic, modern industry was established and the large class of Buddhist lamas or monks were drastically reduced. Capital—*Ulan Bator.* Area : 591,191 sq. m. Population—1,025,000.

MOROCCO—One of the Barbary States, is situated in the north-west of African continent. The Empire theoretically was an absolute monarchy, but the country was divided into three zones—the *French,* the *Spanish* and the *International Tangier Zone.* The country in effect was partitioned and subjected to foreign rule from 1912 to 1956. As a result of a Protectorate Treaty with France in 1912 and a Convention between France and Spain in 1912, the country was divided into French and Spanish Spheres of influence, known respectively as French Morocco and Spanish Morocco. In 1923, the city of Tangier with a small enclave in Spanish Morocco was neutralized and demilitarised. After a lengthy period of unrest, French Government was forced in 1956 to recognise Morocco as an independent sovereign State, and Spanish Government agreed in 1956 that Spanish Morocco was an integral part of the Morocco State and on May 1956 the Tangier International Control Committee agreed to the

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integration of Tangier with the rest of Morocco. Area : 174,553 sq. m. Population—10,115,000. Capital—*Rabat.*

NEPAL—A land-locked country lying between India and Tibet. It occupies slopes of the Himalayas, bound in the north by Tibet, south and west by India and east by Sikkim and Bengal. Nepal has two great distinctions of containing Mt. Everest, 29,028 (ft.), the tallest mountain peak of the world and some of the toughest fighting men in the world—Gorkhas. After a revolution in 1950, a representative government was established in 1950 with King as constitutional head. The new constitution promulgated by the King in February 1959, provides for a constitutional monarchy with a bicameral Parliament and a Cabinet responsible to the Lower House. Area : 54,000 sq. m. Pop.—8,787,000. Capital—*Katmandu.*

NETHERLANDS—A Kingdom in North Western Europe. It is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy. Extensive power is vested exclusively in the sovereign, while the legislative power vests with the sovereign and two-chamber legislature. The sovereignty over former Netherlands Indies was transferred to the Republic of Indonesia, excepting Netherlands New Guniea, in 1949. The Netherlands ranks high among the worlds' shipbuilding nations. Amstardam is one of the world's diamond-cutting centres. Area : 12,850 sq m. Population—11,095,226. Capital—*Amsterdam* ; Seat of Government : The Hague.

NICARAGUA—is the largest central American Republic lying between the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean. Area : 57,143 sq. m. Pop.—1,533,000. Capital—*Managua.*

NIGERIAN FEDERATION—The main two regions of Nigeria in West Africa, East and West Nigeria became self-governing in 1957. Northern Nigeria, the remaining region, the biggest of the country's three regions, attained self-government on March 15, 1959. All three regions are partners in the Nigerian Federation, which came into being in 1954. The whole Federation is to become completely *independent* of British rules in the autumn of 1960. All the three regions have self-government, but the British Government still has certain powers vested in the Governor-General. When full independence is granted to the Federation as a whole, British rule will end. The date for this has been fixed at October 1, 1960.

NEW ZEALAND—A dominion of the British Commonwealth in the south-west Pacific Ocean. The dominion consists of North Island and South Island, Stewart Island, Chatham Islands and some small Pacific Islands. The executive authority is vested in the Governor-General who must act on the advice of an Executive Council appointed from a House of Representatives of 80 members. Area : 103,939 sq. mile. Population—2,259,404. Capital—*Wellington.*

NORWAY—A kingdom of north Europe. Norway is a constitutional and hereditary monoarchy with sucession in direct male line. Legislative power is vested in the Storting (Parliament) with 150 members. They choose one quarter of their number to form the Lagting (Upper House), the other three-quarters forming the Edels-

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ting (Lower Chamber). Executive power is vested in the King acting through the Cabinet (Statsraad), comprising the Prime Minister and at least seven ministers. Norway is one of the greatest seafaring nations and its merchant marine is the third largest in the world. In the North Cape area is the phenomenon known as *midnight sun*. The sun does not set from the middle of May until the end of July, nor does it rise above the horizen approximately from Nov. 18 to Jan. 23. Varicoloured Northern Lights are visible in winter. Forests cover nearly one-fourth of the area. They are the principal sources of wealth, and the paper and wood pulp industries flourish. Area : 125,064 sq. m. Pop—3,500,000. Capital—*Oslo.*

PAKISTAN—is a self-governing member of the Commonwealth of Nations formed on August 14, 1947. It is the world's largest Muslim State. On October 7, 1958, President Mirza declared martial law throughout Pakistan, abolished the Constitution and dissolved the National and Provincial Assemblies. He dismissed the Government of Prime Minister Firoz Khan Noon and Provincial Governments and dissolved the political parties. He appointed Gen. M. Ayub Khan as Supreme Commander and Chief Martial Law Administrator. On October 27, 1958, he in turn resigned under pressure of the military and turned over his office to Gen. Ayub Khan. It is divided into two parts : Western part is made up of Baluchistan, Sind and N. W. F. Province and the western part of the Punjab, princely State of Bhawalpur and a few other small muslim states which have now been formed into one unit state, while Eastern part consists of the eastern half of Bengal and the Sylhet district of Assam. Over half of the population are concentrated in East Bengal which contains only 16 p.c. of the total area. Area : 364,737 sq. m. Pop.—80,164,000. Capital—*Rawalpindi.*

PANAMA, REPUBLIC OF—It occupies the entire Isthmus of that name, connecting Central and South America and separating the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans. It stretches 450 miles. Panama Canal is the country's big econimic asset. On Nov. 18, 1903 Panama granted the canal zone to the U.S. by treaty. Panama canal zone is governed by the Canal Zone Government and operated by the Panama Canal Company, both set up on 1 July, 1951. The Secretary of the U.S. Army holds all the shares of the Company. Area : 28,570 sq. m. Pop.—995,000. Capital—*Panama City.*

PARAGUAY—South American Republic is situated between Argentina, Boliva, and Brazil. Since the adoption of the 1940 constitution, Paraguay is a semi-authoritarian republic. Area : 157,000 sq. m. Pop.—1,638,000. Capital—*Asuncion.*

PERU—A maritime Republic situated on the Pacific coast of South America. Under the Constitution, the President is elected for six years by direct popular vote. The Congress consists of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. Each house being elected for six years. Peru has vast mineral resources. It ranks fifth in world in silver production and mines about 25 p.c. of the world's vanadium. Area : 483,258 sq. m. Population—10,213,000. Capital—*Lima.*

PHILIPPINES—is the largest island group in the Malaya

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Archipelago. It is an archipelago of approximately 7,083 islands lying about 500 miles off the south-east coast of Asia. The largest islands are Luzon, Mindanao, Samar, Negros, and Palawan. The independence of the Philippines was proclaimed on July 4, 1946 in accordance with the Act passed in the American Congress in 1934. The Philippines have a republican form of Government, based on that of the United States. Executive power is exercised by the President, popularly elected for a 4-year term and assisted by a Cabinet appointed by him. The popularly elected Congress has two houses—the Senate with 24 members and the House of Representatives with not more than 120 members. The chief agricultural products are unhusked rices, manila hemp, sugar-cane, corn and tobacco. The principal export fruit in the pineapple. Area : 115,600 sq m. Pop.—23,122,000. Capital—*Manila*

POLAND—is a communist republic of Central Europe known as Polish People's Republic. Poland's new constitution describes Poland as a people's republic in which the highest authority is the Sejm, elected for 4-year term by direct secret ballot. The Sejm elects a Council of State and a Council of Ministers. In most respects it follows the pattern set by the U.S.S.R. constitution of 1936. The office of the President has been abolished and the Council of State is the highest organ of the Government. Area : 120,347 sq. m. Population—28,535,000. Capital—*Warsaw.*

PORTUGAL—is a republic of S.-W. Europe occupying the western part of the Iberian Peninsula, bounded on the north and east by Spain and on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean. Under the constitution of 1933 revised in 1951, Portugal is a Unitary Corporative republic. The President is elected popularly for a term of seven years. It has a National Assembly of 130 members elected by direct vote. There is also a Corporative Chamber which handles economic and social matters and acts in advisory capacity to the National Assembly. The premier is appointed by the president but neither the premier nor his cabinet are responsible to the National Assembly. Area : 35,490 sq. m. Pop.—784,000. Capital—*Lisbon.*

RUMANIA—An independent Republic of the Balkans. According to new Constitution of 1948, Rumania is a "People's Unitary and Independent State". It is socialistic in nature. The highest authority of the Government is Grand National Assembly. Virtually, all the powers formerly vested in the King are exercised by a 19-member presidium of the National Assembly; certain area has been ceded to Russia. Area : 92,000 sq, m. Pop.—17,490,000. Capital—*Bucharest.*

SAN MARINO—An independent republic bounded by Italian territory, lying some 12 miles S.-W. of Rimini. It claims to be the oldest State of Europe being founded in the 4th century and is one of the world's smallest States. San Marino, the capital, is situated on a spur of the Apennines. Government is by a council of 60 and the State is under Italian protection. Area : 38 sq. m. Population—14,000.

SINGAPORE—Singapore was declared an independent State on 3rd June 1959 within the Commonwealth after 140 years of colonial

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rule. Only the defence and foreign policy of the fortress island will remain under the care of the United Kingdom.

SOMALI REPUBLIC.—In the eastern border of Africa the independent republic of Somali was born in 1960. This is the combination of former Italian and British Colonies.

SOUTH AFRICA—The Union of South Africa is a Dominion within the British Commonwealth of nations. It extends from the southernmost point of the African continent to the course of Limpopo region. It consists of the following provinces—Transvaal, Cape of Good Hope, Orange Free State and Natal. The capital of the Union is Pretoria, though Union's Legislature meets in Cape Town. It is the richest gold and diamond producing country in the world and one of the richest in uranium. Area : 472,733 sq. m. Pop.—1,418,000. Capital—*Pretoria* (seat of administration) and *Cape Town* (seat of legislature).

SPAIN—A nominal monarchy of S.-W. Europe. It is separated from France by the Pyrennees mountain. It was proclaimed a republic on April 14, 1931. Spain has a dictatorship form of government under General Franco. Franco is the head of the State, national chief of the Falange party, Prime Minister and *Caudillo* (leader) of the empire. Practically, the country is ruled by the Cabinet (appointed by Franco), the National Council of the Falange Party and, to a lesser extent, the Cortes (Parliament). The principal function of the Cortes is the planning and formulation of laws without prejudice to Franco's veto power. On April 1947, Franco himself declared Spain a kingdom again. He was to remain head of the State, and upon his death or incapacity, the Government and a Council of the Realm constituted by the law are to nominate as King "that person of royal blood who is most qualified by right", subject to the approval of the Cortes. Area : 194,945 sq. m. Pop.—29,431,000. Capital—*Madrid.*

SUDAN—It was formerly Anglo-Egyptian Condominium. It lies between the Sahara and the equatorial forests and extends from the Atlantic to Ethiopia. After the defeat of Sudan by the British forces in 1898, a Condominium was established in agreement with Egypt and reaffirmed in 1936 which provided for the appointment of a Governor-General by Egypt. In 1951 Egypt abrogated the 1936 treaty and Egyptian King began to style himself as the "King of Egypt and Sudan", which was not recognised by Great Britain and by the majority of Sudanese. A compromise agreement was signed on Feb. 1953 providing for the liquidation of the dual administration and the determination by the Sudanese on either Union with Egypt or complete independence. Sudan voted for complete independence on Dec. 19, 1955, effective on Jan. 1, 1956 and provided for a Constituent Assembly and new Parliament. Area : 967,500 sq. m. Pop.—10,000,000. Capital—*Khartum.*

SWEDEN—A kingdom of North Europe. Government is a constitutional hereditary monarchy. The King holds executive and judicial authority together with the Council of States headed by the

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Prime Minister; the Council is appointed by the King, but is responsible collectively to the Riksdag (Parliament). The Riksdag has an upper chamber elected indirectly. The lower chamber of 230 members is directly elected by popular vote for four years. Sweden is an important source of high grade iron ore and also exports lumber, pulp and paper and is known for its special technical industries (ball hearings and electrical appliances). Area : 173,569 sq. m. Pop.—7,395,000. Capital—*Stockholm.*

SWITZERLAND—Switzerland is surrounded by France, Germany, Austria and Italy. It is the federal republic of Central Europe and is a federation of 22 sovereign cantons. Each canton has its own legislature, executive and judiciary department with the right to veto over federal legislation through referendum. The national authority vests in a Parliament of two chambers : State Council to which each canton sends two members ; the lower house—National Council, has 196 members. The executive power is vested in the Federal Council of seven members. Perisdent serves for one year. On the basis of international treaties and guarantees, Switzerland is perpetually neutral. Switzerland enters into no military alliance and is not a member of the U. N. or NATO. It is, however, a member of various international commissions of the U.N., W. H. O., etc. German, French and Italian are official languages of Switzerland. Dairying, stock-raising and watch-making are the principal industries. The biggest business in Switzerland is the tourist industry. Area : 15,950 sq. m. Pop.—5,117,000. Capital—*Barne.*

SYRIA (*U. A. R. Province*)—The republic is in the Levent covering a portion of the former Ottoman Empire. It is an arid and uncultivated country situated in a fertile oasis. It had been under French mandate since 1914-18 war, became an independent republic during 1939-45 war. The constitution which is based to some extent on that of the U. S. was passed in 1950. It has now joined with Egypt in 1958 to form a political union between the two countries to be known as *United Arab Republic.* Area : 70,014 sq. m. Pop.—4,082,000. Capital—*Damascus.*

THAILAND—Under the interim constitution of Feb. 1959 following on the bloodless revolution of October 1958, the King exercises legislative power by and with the advice and consent of a Constituent Assembly, executive power through the Council of Ministers and judicial power through the courts established by law. He is advised by a Privy Council appointed by himself. 240 members of the Constituent Assembly have the additional task of drafting a permanent constitution for Thailand. Area : 198,270 sq. m. Pop. 21,474,000. Capital—*Bankok.*

TRIESTE—From June, 1945, the area of Trieste, a seaport of the north Adriatic on a like-named gulf was administered by Allied Military Government. Provision for setting up a Free Territory of Trieste includded in the Italian Peace Treaty signed on Feb. 10, 1947 proved unworkable and military occupation of two zones continued until 1954, when an agreement was concluded on October, 1954 between Italy, Yogoslavia, the United Kingdom and the United States

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partitioning the territory between Italy and Yugoslavia into two zones.

TUNESIA—was a French protectorate from 1881 to 1956 when it was proclaimed a republic in 1957. It is situated on the northern coast of Africa lying between Algeria and Libya Area : 45,000 sq. m. Pop.—3,815,000. Capital—*Tunis.*

TURKEY—A republic of Asia and Europe. The European territory was reduced to the city of Constantinople and a narrow strip of country around it. It is 9,254 sq. miles including the city of Istanbul and Adrianopole and is separated from Asia by the Bhosphorus and Dardanelles. The Turkey in Asia has 285,246 sq. miles. The Turkish State is defined as "republican, nationalist, populist, etatist, secular and revolutionary." The President is chosen from the deputies of the National Assembly ; his term of office is identical with the life of each Assembly. 487 members of the Assembly are elected by universal suffrage for a term of four years. Area : 296,500 sq. m. Population—25,500,000. Capital—*Ankara.*

UNITED KINGDOM—The United Kingdom consisting of England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, lies off the north-west corner of Europe. The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy with a King and a Parliament consisting of two houses : the House of Lords and the House of Commons. Supreme legislative power is vested in Parliament, which holds office for five years unless sooner dissolved. The executive power of the Crown is exercised by the Cabinet headed by the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister, normally the head of the party commanding a majority in the House of Commons, is appointed by the Sovereign ; with whose consent he in turn appoints the rest of the Cabinet. All the ministers must be members of one or the other house of Parliament. Area : 94,279 sq. m. Pop.—50,033,000. Capital —*London.*

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—A Federal Republic of North America, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Canada to Mexico with outlying areas in Alaska, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, Guam and other Pacific islands. United States consists of 50 States and the federal district of Columbia. U.S.A. has a federal government which is based on the separation of powers—the President, House of Congress and the Supreme Court being designed to balance and restrain each other—hence the famous concept of 'checks and balances'. Each State is self-governing in local matters, but confides to the Central Government at Washington the control of foreign affairs and the army and navy. Police, education, public health, etc., remain within the scope of the individual States. The capital is Washington which belongs to no State, being administered directly by the Federal Government. Executive power is vested in the President elected by popular vote every four years. He chooses the members of the Cabinet who are not (as in England) members of the legislature. Legislative power is vested in Congress, composed of two houses : the Senate with two members from each

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State elected to serve six years and the House of Representatives composed of a number of members varying according to the census, elected for two years. There is adult suffrage. The third main component of the constitution is the Supreme Court at Washington. Area : 3,026,789 sq. m. Pop.—163,900,000. Capital—*Washington.*

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS—It is a Federal State of East Europe, North and West Central Asia. The U.S.S.R. emerged as a political entity under the leadership of Lenin after the Russian Revolution of 1917 and the downfall of the empire of Russia. It was proclaimed formally in 1922, after a confused interim period of civil war with Poland (1920), the first State basing its constitution on Marxist communism. Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is composed of Russian, Ukrainian, Bylorussian, Azerbaijan, Georgian, Armenian, Kazak, Turkmenian, Kirghiz, Tadjek, Uzbek, Estonian, Latvian, Lithuanian and Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republics. It is the largest country in the world, stretches across two continents from the North Pacific Ocean to the Gulf of Finland. Vast territory of U.S.S.R., one sixth of the earth's land surface, contains every phase of climate, except the distinctly tropical and a varied topography. The constitution of December 5, 1936 provides that the highest organ in the U.S.S.R. is the Supreme Soviet consisting of two equal Houses ; that members thereof shall be chosen on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot for a term of 4 years ; that regular sessions of each body shall be held twice each year ; that there shall be a president of each house ; that there shall be a Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, which shall consist of a president, 15 vice-presidents (one vice-president for each constituent republic of the Union), a secretary and 16 members ; that the Presidium shall act as an executive and directive body between the sessions of the Supreme Soviet.

The U.S.S.R. is probably the richest country in the world in mineral resources, containing deposits of almost every known mineral. It ranks among the top-producing nations in coal, chromite, iron ore, petroleum, gold, copper, manganese, and other products. The richest mineral region is that of the Ural mountains. Area : 8,650,000 sq. m. Pop.—200,200,000. Capital—*Moscow.*

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC (Egypt and Syria)—On February 1, 1958, the birth of the United Arab Republic was proclaimed by the President Nasser of Egypt and the President of Syria, and the Union of Egypt and Syria was confirmed by a plebiscite held simultaneously in Egypt and Syria on February 21, 1958. Egypt and Syria each became provinces in the new nation and each kept its own executive council. The merger provided for a joint Parliament, an independent judiciary and a permanent constitution. The constitution subscribes to democratic institutions and principles but also grants wide executive powers to the President. The legislature is vested in a National Assembly to be chosen by Presidential decree.

Egyptian Region—Area : 386,110 sq. m. ; Pop. 24,000,000 ; Capital—*Cairo.*

Syrian Region—The republic of Syria is in the Levant, cover-

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ing a portion of the former Ottaman Empire. Area : 70,014 sq. m. Pop· 3,970,000. Capital—*Damascus.*

URUGUAY—The smallest Republic in South America. Area : 68,396 sq. m. Pop.—2,615,000. Capital—*Montevideo.*

VATICAN CITY—An independent sovereign State, created by the Treaty of 1929, of which the Pope is the head. It covers 109 acres in the heart of Rome and includes Vatican Palace, the Pope's official residence and the basilica and square of St. Peters. The immediate government of the State of Vatican City is in the hands of a Governor. He is assisted by a Counsellor-General and by a number of offices. There is no political parties and no Parliament. Area : 109 acres. Pop.—1,000.

VENEZUELA—is the northernmost State of South America. Area : 352,051 sq. m. Pop.—6,320,000. Capital—*Caracas.*

VIETNAM (South)—According to Geneva Agreement of 1954, which ended the Indo-China war, North and South Vietnam were to be reunified through elections in 1956. But President Diem flouted the provisions of Geneva Agreement on the ground that the French and not his Government, had been signatory to it. Area : 65,726 sq. m. Pop. 12,866,000. Capital—*Saigon-cholon.*

VIETNAM (North)—has a Soviet type of Government. This democratic republic comprises the northern part of the former State of Tongking and the northern part of Annam. It is no longer a part of the French Union. The Government of the republic is organised along typical communist lines. The decision taken at Geneva in 1954 to reunite North and South Vietnam in 1956 was thwarted by South Vietnam. Area : 63,360 sq. m. Pop. 14,900,000. Capital—*Hanoi.*

YEMEN—The Imamate of Yemen now federated with the United Arab Republic is an ancient kingdom, mostly mountainous, which is in the south-western part of the Arabian Peninsula. Following formation of the new United Arab Republic, Yemen federated with the new republic, March 8, 1958 but unlike Egypt and Syria retained its sovereignty. Area 75,000 sq. m. Pop. 4,500,000.

YUGOSLAVIA—is a federal republic of S.-E. Europe in the Balkan peninsula and is a federation comprising the People's Republics of Serbia, Croatia, Slovakia, Bosnia-Harzagina, Macedonia and Montenegro. Under the 1953 Constitution, Yugoslavia is a federal republic. Executive power is vested in the federal executime council of 30 to 45 members, elected by and from the federal assembly and presided over by the President of the republic who is elected by and is responsible to the federal assembly. The assembly consists of (1) a federal council and (2) a council of producers. Area: 98,766 sq. m. Pop.—17,799,000. Capital—*Belgrade.*

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POLITICAL INFORMATION

RULERS OR HEADS OF THE WORLD

Country	*Ruler*	*Executive Head*
Afghanistan ..	Zahir Shah, *King.* ..	Md. Daud Khan, *P.M.*
Australia ..	Viscount Dunrossil, *G.G.* ..	R. G. Menzies, *P.M.*
Austria ..	Adolf Scherf, *P.* ..	Jullus Raab, *Chancellor,*
Argentina ..	Arturo Frondizi, *P.* ..	
Belgium ..	Baudouin,, King ..	Gaston Eyskens, *P.M.*
Burma ..	U. Win Maung, *P.* ..	General Ne Win. *P.M.*
Brazil ..	Janis Quadros, *P.* ..	
Bulgaria ..	Dimeter Ganey, *P.* ..	Anton Yugov, *P.M.*
Canada ..	George P. Varrier, *G. G.* ..	John Diefenbaker, *P.M.*
Cambodia ..	Narodom Suramarit, *King.*	Narodom Sihanauk, *P.M.*
Chile ..	George Alessandri, *P.* ..	
China ..	Lin-Shao-Chi, *P.* ..	Chou En-lai, *P.M.*
Ceylon ..	Sir O. Goonatileke. *G. G.*	Mrs. SenaNayake, *P.M.*
Congo ..	Joseph Kasavubu, *P.* ..	Patrice Lumumba, *P.M.*
Cuba ..	Dr. Fidel Castro, *P.* ..	
Czechoslovakia	A. Novotny, *P.* ..	Viliam Siroky, *P.M.*
Denmark ..	Frederick IX, *King.* ..	H. C. Hansen, *P.M.*
Egypt ..	G. A. Nasser, *P.* ..	
Ethiopia ..	Haile Selassie I, *Emp.* ..	Vacant
Finland ..	Urho Kekkonen, *P.* ..	V. J. Sukselainen, *P.M.*
France ..	Charles de Gaulle, *P.* ..	Michel Debre, *P.M.*
Ghana ..	Kwame Nikrumah, *P.* ..	
Germany W.	Dr. Henrich Luebke, *P.* ..	K. Adenauer, *Chancellor.*
Germany E.	W. Pieck, *P.* ..	O. Grotewohl, *P.M.*
Gt. Britain ..	Elizabeth II, *Q.* ..	Harold Macmillan, *P.M.*
Greece ..	Paul I. *King.* ..	C. Karamanlis, *P.M.*
Hungary ..	Istvan Dobi, *P.* ..	Janos Kadar, *P.M.*
Iran ..	Md. Raza Pahlevi Shah ..	M. Eghbal, *P.M.*
Iraq ..	Najib al- Rubai, *P.* ..	Brig. Abdul Karim Kassem, *P.M.*
India ..	Rajendra Prasad, *P.* ..	J. L. Nehru, *P.M.*
Indonesia ..	Dr. A. Soekarno, *P.* ..	Dr. H. Djuanda, *P.M.*
Iceland .	Asgier Asgeirsson, *P.* ..	H. Jonsson, *P.M.*
Italy ..	Giovanni Gronchi, *P.* ..	Antonio Segni, *P.M.*
Ireland ..	Eamon De Valera, *P.* ..	Sean Lemass, *P.M.*
Israel ..	Issac Ben-Zevi, *P.* ..	D. Ben Gurion, *P.M.*
Japan ..	Hirohito, *Emperor.* ..	Hayata Ikela, *P.M.*
Jordan ..	King Hussain I ..	Bahjat Talhuni, *P.M.*
Korea (South)	Lee Bum Suk, *P.* ..	Huh Chung, *P.M.*
Korea (North)	Kim Du-bong, *P.* ..	Kim II Sung, *P.M.*
Laos ..	Sisavang Vong, *King.* ..	Phoui Sananikone, *P.M.*

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Lebanon ..	Fuad Chebab, *P.* ..	Rashid Karami, *P.M.*
Luxemburg ..	Charlotte, *Grand Duchess.*	Pierre Frieden, *P.M.*
Liberia ..	W. V. S. Tubman, *P.* ..	
Mexico ..	Adolfo Lopez Mateos, *P.* ..	
Malaya, Fed.	Sir Abdul Rahman, *K.* ..	Tengku A. Rahman, *P.M.*
Monaco ..	Prince Rainier III. *K.* ..	
Morocco ..	Sultan Mahomed, *V.* ..	Abdullah Ibrahim, *P.M.*
Nepal ..	Mahendra Bir Bikram, *K.*	B. P. Kairola, *P.M.*
Netherlands	Juliana, *Queen.* ..	Jan Eduard de Quay,
Norway ..	Olav V, *King.* ..	Einar Gerhardsen, *P.M.*
Pakistan ..	General M. Ayub Khan, *P.*	
Peru ..	Manuel A. Ugarteche, *P.*	
Philippines .	Carlos P. Gracia, *P.* ..	
Portugal ..	A. D. R. Rodrigues Tomaz, *P.* ..	A. O. Salazar, *P.M.*
Poland ..	A. Zawadzki, *Chairman* ..	Josef Cyronkiewick, *P.M.*
Rumania ..	Ion G. Maurer, *P.* ..	Chivu Stoica, *P.M.*
Saudi-Arabia	King Saud ..	Crown Prince Faisal *P.M.*
Sudan ..	Ibrahim Alboud, *P.*	
South Africa	Charles R. Swart, *G. G.* ..	Dr. H. F. Verwoerd, *P.M.*
Spain ..	Genl. F. Franco, *Chief of State* ..	
Sweden ..	Gustaf VI, *King.* ..	T. F. Erlander, *P.M.*
Switzerland ..	Max Petitierre, *P.* ..	
Syria ..	Shukri al-Kuwaltv, *P.* ..	Sabri El Asaly, *P.M.*
Thailand ..	King Rama IX, *King.* ..	Sarit Thanarat, *P.M.*
Tunisia ..	Habib Bourguiba, *P.* ..	
Turkey ..		General Gursel, *P.M.*
U.S.S.R. ..	Leonid Brezhnev, *President*	N. Khrushchev, *Chairman, Council of Ministers.*
United Arab Republic .	Gamal Abdel Nasser, *P.* ..	
United States	D. D. Eisenhower, *P.* ..	
Vatican City	John XXIII, *Pope.* ..	
Viet-Nam, N.	Ho Chi Minh, *P.* ..	
Viet-Nam, S.	Ngo Dinh Diem, *P.* ..	Pans Van-dong, *P.M.*
Yugoslavia ..	Josip Boriz Tito, *P.*	

PRESIDENTS OF THE U.S.

	Name	*Politics*		*Name*	*Politics*
1789-1797	G. Washington	Fed.	1825-1829	J. Quincy Adams	Rep.
1797-1801	John Adams	Fed.	1829-1837	Andrew Jackson	Dem.
1801-1809	Thomas Jofferson	Rep.	1837-1841	Martin Van Buren	Dem.
1809-1817	James Madison	Rep.	1841-1841	W. H. Harrison	Whig.
1817-1825	James Monroe	Rep.			

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Presidents of the U.S.—(*Concld.*)

	Name	*Politics*		*Name*	*Politics*
1841-1845	John Tayler	Whig.	1889-1893	B. Harrison	Rep.
1845-1849	J. Knox Polk	Dem.	1893-1897	G. Cleveland	Dem.
1849-1850	Zachary Taylor	Whig.	1897-1901	W. McKinley	Rep.
1850-1853	M. Fillmore	Whig.	1901-1909	T. Roosevelt.	Rep.
1853-1857	Franklin Pierce	Dem.	1909-1913	William H. Taft	Rep.
1857-1861	J. Buchanan	Dem.	1913-1921	W. Wilson	Dem.
1861-1865	A. Lincoln	Rep.	1921-1923	W. G. Harding	Rep.
1865-1869	Andrew Johnson	Rep.	1923-1929	Calvin Coolidge	Rep.
1869-1877	Ulyssess Grant	Rep.	1929-1933	H. C. Hoover	Rep.
1877-1881	R. B. Hayes	Rep.	1933-1945	F. D. Roosevelt	Dem.
1881-1881	James Garfield	Rep.	1945-1953	H. S. Truman	Dem.
1881-1885	Chester A. Arthur	Rep.	1953-1960	D. D. Eisenhower	Rep.
1885-1889	G. Cleveland	Dem.	1960-		

BRITISH PRIME MINISTERS

Sir R. Walpole (Whig)	1721	Earl of Derby (Con)	1858
Earl of Wilmington (Whig)	1742	Visct. Palmerston (Lib)	1858
Henry Pelham (Whig)	1743	Lord Russell (Lib)	1865
Duke of Newcastle (Whig)	1754	Earl of Derby (Con)	1866
Duke of Devonshire (Whig)	1756	B. Disraeli (Con)	1868
Duke of Newcastle (Whig)	1757	W. E. Gladstone (Lib)	1868
Earl of Bute (Tory)	1762	B. Disraeli (Con)	1874
George Grenville (Whig)	1763	W. E. Gladstone (Lib)	1880
Lord Rockingham (Whig)	1765	M'quess of Salisbury (Con)	1885
Duke of Grafton (Whig)	1767	W. E. Gladstone (Lib)	1886
Lord North (Tory)	1770	M'quess of Salisbury (Con)	1886
Lord Rockingham (Whig)	1782	W. E. Gladstone (Lib)	1892
Earl of Shelburne (Whig)	1782	Earl of Rosebery (Lib)	1894
Duke of Portland (Coal)	1728	M'quess of Salisbury (Con)	1895
William Pitt (Tory)	1783	A. J. Balfour (Con.)	1902
Henry Addington (Tory)	1801	Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman (Lib)	1905
William Pitt (Tory)	1804	H. H. Asquith (Lib)	1908
Lord Grenville (Whig)	1806	H. H. Asquith (Coal)	1915
Duke of Portland (Tory)	1807	D. Lloyd George (Coal)	1916
Spencer Percival (Tory)	1809	A. Bonar Law (Con)	1922
Lord Liverpool (Tory)	1812	Stanley Baldwin (Con)	1923
George Canning (Tory)	1827	J. R. McDonald (Labour)	1924
Lord Goderich (Tory)	1827	Stanley Baldwin (Con)	1924
Duke of Wellington (Tory)	1828	J. R. McDonald (Labour)	1929
Earl Grey (Whig)	1830	J. R. McDonald (Coal)	1931
Viscount Melbourne (Whig)	1834	Stanley Baldwin (Coal)	1935
Sir Robert Peel (Tory)	1834	N. Chamberlain (Coal)	1937
Visct. Melbourne (Whig)	1835	W. S. Churchill (Con)	1940
Sir Robert Peel (Tory)	1841	C. R. Attlee (Lab)	1945
Lord John Russel (Whig)	1846	W. S. Churchill (Con)	1951
Earl of Derby (Tory)	1852	Anthony Eden (Con)	1955
Earl of Aberdeen (Peelite)	1852	Harold MacMillan (Con)	1957
Visct. Palmerston (Liberal)	1855		

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SALARIES OF THE HEADS OF GOVERNMENTS

President of U.S.A. ..	.. $100,000 per year*
British Prime Minister	.. £10,000 per year
President of the Indian Union	Rs. 10,000 per month†
Prime Minister of Japan ..	.. 110,000 yen per month‡

RULERS OF FRANCE SINCE WORLD WAR II
(*Fourth Republic*)

Vichy Government		Fourth Republic	
H. P. Pétain ..	1940-44	Vincent Auriol ..	1947-54
		Rene Coty ..	1954-59
Provisional Government			
Charles de Gaulle ..	1944-46	**Fifth Republic**	
Felix Gouin ..	1946	Charles de Gaulle ..	1959
Georges Bidault ..	1946-47		

RULERS OF GERMANY SINCE WORLD WAR I

Heads of the Reich		Federal Republic (Western)	
F. Ebert	1918-25	Theodor Heuss	1949-59
Paul Van Hindenburg	1925-35	Heinrich Luebke	1959
Adolf Hitler (*Fuhrer*)	1934-45	**Democratic Republic (Eastern)**	
Karl Doenitz	1945-45	Wilhelm Pieck	1949

RULERS OF U.S.S.R.

Nikolai Lenin ..	1917-24	Georgi M. Malenkov ..	1953-54
Joseph Stalin ..	1924-53	Nikolai Bulganin ..	1954-57
		Nikita Khrushchev ..	1957-

RULERS OF GREAT BRITAIN
(House of Windsor)

George V ..	(1936-1936)	George VI ..	(1936-52)
Edward VIII ..	(1936-1936)	Elizabeth II ..	(1952-

POLITICAL ASSASSINATIONS

1865 Abraham Lincoln, President U.S.A., April 14.
1872 Earl of Mayo, Governor-General of India.
1876 Abdul Aziz, Sultan of Turkey, June 4.
1881 Alexander of Russia and President Garfield, U.S.A.
1894 Marie F. Sadi-Carnot. President of France, June 24.
1896 Nash-ed-Din, Shah of Iran.
1894 President Carnot of France,
1898 Empress Elizabeth of Austria, Sept. 10.
1900 Humbert of Italy.
1901 President McKinley, U.S.A., Sept. 6.
1903 King Alexander and his wife Draga of Serbia.

**Plus* taxable $50,000 for expenses and a non-taxable sum (not exceeding $40,000 a year) for travelling and official entertainment expenses.
† With emoluments, etc. ‡ Exclusive of allowances.

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Political Assassinations—(*Concld.*)

1905 Grand Duke Sergius, Russia.
1908 King Carlos and Crown Prince of Portugal.
1909 Prince Ito of Japan.
1911 Stolypin, Premier of Russia, 14th Sept.
1912 Jose Canalojas, Premier of Spain.
1913 King George I of Greece.
1914 Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria & his wife.
1918 Czar Nicholas II and family, July 31 ; President Paes of Portugal.
1919 Amir Habibullah of Afghanistan.
1921 Dato, Premier of Spain ; Ta Kashi Hara, Japanese Premier.
1922 J. Narutowicz, 1st President of Poland, Dec. 16 ; Michael Collins, Irish, Free State Premier.
1928 Ex-President Gen. Alvaro Obregon of Mexico.
1930 Premier, Hamaguchi, Japan.
1932 President Doumer of France ; Ki Inukai, Japanese Premier, May 31.
1933 Emir Faisal, King of Iraq, Sept. 9 ; Ion Duea, Rumanian Premier, Dec. 24 ; King Nadir Shah of Afghanistan.
1934 Austrian Chancellor Dr. Dollfuss ; King Alexander I of Yugoslavia ; M. Barthow, F. Foreign Minister.
1935 Huey P. Long, U. S. Senator, Sept. 10.
1936 K. Takahasi, Finance Minister, Admiral Saito, Admiarl Suzuki, Japan.
1937 General Baqir Sidqi, Dictator of Iraq, August 12.
1938 E. Von Rath of German Embassy, Paris.
1939 Rumanian Premier M. Calinescau.
1940 Leon Trotsky, Exiled Russian leader, 21st August.
1942 Hydrich, German Protector of Bohemia-Moravia ; Admiral Darlan of France.
1945 Mehar Pasha, Premier of Egypt, Feb. 24.
1946 Ananda Mahidol, King of Siam, July 9.
1947 Gen. Aung San, Vice-President of Burma and five Cabinet Ministers.
1948 Mahatma Gandhi, Jan. 30
1948 Count F. Bernadotte, U.N. mediator, Sept. 17 ; Premier Nokrashy Pasha of Egypt.
1949 Syrian President Hosni Ziam, Aug. 14 ; Abdul Hussain, Ex-Persian Prime Minister, Nov. 4.
1951 Ali Razmara, Premier of Iran, Mar. 7 ; King Abdulla of Jordan, July ; Liaquat Ali Khan, Premier of Pakistan, Oct. 16.
1955 President Antonio Remon of Panama.
1957 Castillo Armen, President of Guatemala, July 26.
1958 King & Crown Prince of Iraq Nuri-as-Said, Premier of Iraq.
1959 S. Bandarnayke, Prime Minister of Ceylon.

FAMOUS ABDICATIONS

	B.C.		A.D.
Sulla, Roman Dictator	79	Richard II (England)	1399
	A.D.	Charles V (Germany)	1555
Deocletian (Roman Emp.)	305	Mary Queen of Scots	1567
Edward II (England)	1327	Christina (Sweden)	1654

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Famous Abdications—(*Concld.*)

	A.D.		
James II (England)	1688	George II (Greece)	1924
Charles IV (Spain)	1808	Amanulla (Afghanistan)	1929
Nepoleon I (France)	1814	Alfonso (Spain)	1931
Louis Philippe (France)	1848	Prajabardhak (Thailand)	1935
Isabella I (Spain)	1870	Edward VIII (England)	1936
Abdul Hamid II (Turkey)	1909	Zog I (Albania)	1939
Manoel (Portugal)	1910	Carol II (Rumania)	1940
Pu-Yi (China)	1912	Reza Shah Pelavi (Iran)	1941
Nicholas II (Russia)	1917	Victor Emmanuel III (Italy)	1946
Constantine (Greece)	1917	Simeon (Bulgaria)	1946
	1922	Michael (Rumania)	1947
Ferdinand I (Bulgaria)	1918	Wilhelmina (Netherlands)	1948
Wilhelm II (Germany)	1918	Leopold III (Belgium)	1951
Karl (Austria)	1918	Faruk I (Egypt)	1952
Muhammad VI (Turkey)	1922	Talal (Jordan)	1952

FLAGS OF COUNTRIES

Afghanistan—Three vertical bars, black, red and green; design in centre (red) bar composed of a mosque endorsed by a crescent formed of two ears of wheat joined at the bottom.

Argentina—Two colours distributed in three horizontal stripes: Skyblue/white/Skyblue, with the Sun in the Centre.

Belgium—Three vertical bands, black, yelow, red.

Brazil—Green with 21 white stars forming Southern Cross on blue circle superimposed on gold diamond in centre.

Burma—Red with a canton of blue, bearing a large white five-pointed star surrounded by 5 smaller stars.

Ceylon—Dark red with yellow border and finials in corners, yellow lion symbol in centre, two vertical stripes of green and saffron at pole.

Chile—White and red horizontal bars, with white star in blue canton.

Denmark—White cross on red field.

Egypt—White crescent and three five-pointed stars on green field.

Ethiopia—Three horizontal bars, green-yellow-red with lion in yellow bar.

Finland—White with blue cross.

France—The 'tricolour', three vertical bands, blue, white, red (blue next to flagstaff).

Greece—Nine horizontal bands, alternately blue and white with white cross on blue ground in corner.

Hungary—Horizontal bands, red-white-green, with coat of arms in centre.

India—Three horizontal strips, saffron, white and dark green, with 24-spoke wheel of Asoka in centre of white band.

Indonesia—Two horizontal bands, red and white.

Iran—Three horizontal bars, green-white-red, with golden lion insignia in white portion.

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Flags of Countries—(*Concld.*)

Iraq—Black-white-green horizontal bars ; vertical red trapizoid near hoist, containing two white stars.

Ireland—Vertical bars, green-white-orange.

Italy—Three vertical stripes, dark green-white-red.

Israel—White, with two horizontal blue stripes, the Shield of David in the centre.

Japan—White ground charged with rising sun (red).

Mexico—Three vertical bars, green-white-red, with eagle and cactus emblem on white.

Mongolia—Vertical bars, red-blue-red, with gold 5-pointed star and emblem near hoist.

Netherlands—Three horizontal bars, red-white-blue.

Norway—Red with white bordered blue cross.

Pakistan—Dark green rectangle with white vertical bar at mast ; white crescent and white heraldic five-pointed star in centre.

Peru—Three vertical bars, red, white, red.

Philippines—Blue and red horizontal bars ; white canton with gold sun, three gold stars.

Poland—Two horizontal bars, white and red.

Portugal—Green and red with arms.

Rumania—Three vertical bars, blue-yellow red with insignia in centre.

Saudi-Arabia—Green with white sword below, an excerpt from Koran in white Arabic characters.

Spain—Three equal horizontal bands (red, yellow & red) with coat of arms in centre bands.

Switzerland—White cross on red ground.

Sweden—Blue with yellow cross.

Thailand—Five horizontal bands, red, white, dark blue, white and red (the blue band twice the width of the others).

Turkey—Red, with white crescent star.

U.S.A.—Thirteen stripes and 50 stars.

U.A.R.—Green with white crescent (convex side to flagstaff) and three 5-pointed white stars arranged in an equilateral triangle between the horns.

U.S.S.R.—Red, with star above hammer and sickle.

United Kingdom—Union Jack (blue ground with superimposed crosses of St. George, St. Andrew and St. Patrick in red and white).

West Germany—Black, red, gold horizontal bars.

Yugoslavia—Blue, white, red with a five-point red star superimposed.

OTHER FLAGS

NATO flags—is navy blue with white ensign.

Red Crescent flag—with a white field is a flag of the Geneva Convention. It is used in place of Red Cross flag in all Muslim countries except Iran.

Red Cross flag—is the most widely used flag of the Geneva Convention. It has Red Cross against white background.

Union Jack—British National Flag.

Old Glory—Flag of United States.

Flag of distress—Flown upside down.

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Red flag—Once a signal for battle, now this name given to Communist and Soviet Russian flags.

Yellow flag—Flown on a ship with persons suffering from contagious or infectious diseases.

Red Lion Flag—is the flag of the Geneva Convention in Iran. Flag has a white field.

United Nations—White U.N. emblem (global map projected from the North Pole and embraced in twin olive branches) centred on a rectangular blue banner.

Pan-American Union Flag—Two pointed Pennant.

Railways—A *white* flag denotes that line is clear, and the driver can go ahead, *red* is the danger signal and means 'no advance,' and *green* signifies 'go slow.'

Black flag—is the emblem of piracy.

Red flag—To display red flag is to defy or dare a battle.

White flag—is a flag of truce or surrender.

POLITICAL ABBREVIATIONS

ECAFE Economic Commission for Asia and Far East.

ECE Economic Council for Europe.

ECO European Coal Organisation.

FAO Food & Agricultural Organisation.

FUND International Monetory Fund.

GATT General Agreement on and Trade Tariffs.

ICEF International Children's Emergency Fund.

ICAO International Civil Aviation Organisation.

IFC International Finance Corporation.

ITU International Telecommunication Union.

ICAO International Civil Aviation Organisation.

IAEA International Atomic Energy Agency.

ITO International Trade Organisation.

IAEA International Atomic Energy Agency.

ILO International Labour Organisation

IMCO Inter-governmental maritime consultative organisation.

UNICEF United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund.

UNRRA United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

IMF International Monetory Fund.

IRO International Refugee Organisation.

ITU International Telecommunication Union.

NATO North Atlantic Treaty-Organisation.

NRA National Recovery Administration.

MEDO Middle-East Defence Organisation.

OEEC Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (Marshall Aid).

SHAPE Supreme Head-quarters of Allied Powers, Europe.

SEATO South-East Asia Collective Treaty Organisation.

SEADO South-East Asia Defence Organisation.

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation.

CARE Co-operative for American Remittances Everywhere.

UNCAFE United Nations Commission for Asia and Far East.

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UNCIP United Nations Commission on India & Pakistan (Kashmir).
UPU Universal Postal Union.
WMO World Meteorological Organisation.
WHO World Health Organisation.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

Rio Treaty
United States
Cuba
Honduras
Mexico
Guatimala
El Salvador
Nicaragua
Haiti
Dominician Rep.
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezulea
Ecuador
Colombia
Peru
Bolivia
Paraguay
Brazil
Chili
Argentina
Uruguay

NATO
U. S.
Canada
Iceland
Norway
United Kingdom
Netherlands
Denmark
W. Germany
Belgium
Luxembourg
Italy
Portugal
France
Greece
Turkey

Anzus Treaty
U. S.
New Zealand
Australia

Manila Treaty (SEATO)
U. S.
United Kingdom
France
New Zealand
Australia
Thailand
Pakistan
Philippines

CENTO
Great Britain
Turkey
Pakistan
Iran
United States

Colombo Plan
Australia
Burma
British Borneo
Cambodia
Canada
Ceylon
India
Indonesia
Japan
Laos
Malaya Federation
Nepal
New Zealand
Pakistan
United Kingdom
Viet Nam
United States
(*Associate*)

Organisation of American States (OAS.)
Argentina
Bolivia
Brazil
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominician Rep.
Ecuador
El Salvador
Guatimala
Haiti
Honduras
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
U. S. A.
Venezuela

Warsaw Treaty
Albania
Bulgaria
Czechoslovakia
East Germany
Hungary
Poland
Rumania
U. S. S. R

Commonwealth of Nations
United Kingdom
Canada
Australia
New Zealand
Union of South Africa
India
Pakistan
Ceylon
Ghana
Federation of Malaya

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COMMUNIST COUNTRIES

	Area (sq. m.)	*Population*
Soviet Union ..	.. 8,700,000	200,200,000
Outer Mongolia ..	.. 615,000	1,000,000
Albania ..	.. 10,600	1,400,000
Bulgaria ..	.. 42,800	7,600,000
Rumania ..	.. 91,600	17,700,000
Hungary ..	.. 35,900	9,800,000
Poland ..	.. 120,350	28,200,000
Czechoslovakia ..	.. 49,400	13,400,000
North Korea ..	.. 48,500	8,200,000
East Germany ..	.. 42,100	17,600,000
China ..	.. 3,700,000	627,800,000
North Vietnam ..	.. 63,000	12,000,000
Total ..	13,519,250	944,900,000

POLITICAL PARTIES AND GROUPS

Parties in U.S.A.—There are no fundamental differences between two major political parties of the United States—the *Republican* and the *Democratic*. Strictly speaking, two parties cannot be exactly classified under the left and right pattern and there are Conservatives as well as progressive Republicans, as there are Conservative and progressive Democrats. *Republican Party* is traditionally the high-tariff party strong in the Northern and Central States. In foreign policy, the party wants honourable and just peace as the supreme goal. In domestic policy, its objectives are a balanced budget, a reduced national debt, an economical administration and a cut in taxes. *Democratic Party* is traditionally the low-tarff party, strongest in the Southern States. In foreign policy it declared that peace with honour was the greatest goal. It reaffirms Wilsonian principle of the right of national self-determination, supports expansion of world trade.

Arab League—An association of Arab States formed on 22nd March, 1945. The League has as its purpose the strengthening of the relations between member States ; the co-ordination of their policies in order to achieve co-operation between them and to safeguard their independence and sovereignty, and a general concern with the affairs and interests of the Arab countries. Eight of the ten independent Arab States are members—Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, United Arab Republic of Egypt, Syria and Yemen.

Kuomintang—The Chinese Nationalist Party formed originally by the followers of Sun-Yet-Sen in 1905. The party aims at the establishment of a modern, democratic, national state in China. It stands for national unity, territorial integrity and a strong central government. It insists on full sovereignty of China and the abolition of any unequal treaties. The party has now been driven out from the mainland of China by the communists and is now confined to the Island of Formosa.

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Centre Parties—Parties which are more conservative than left-wing parties and more progressive than right-wing parties.

Cominform—Communist Information Bureau, established in 1947 by communist parties of USSR, other communist countries and Italy. Purpose is exchange of experience ; membership is voluntary and its decisions are not binding, though influence is great.

Conservative Party (England)—One of the chief political parties of England. It is the successor of Tory Party of the 18th and 19th centuries. It is a party of the right, in favour of existing social and economic system and is opposed to socialism. Its policy is directed at the maintenance of the Empire, at the development of home agriculture and industry and at the safeguarding of private property. The external policy of the party is traditionally nationalist and imperialist. Conservative party is opposed to further nationalisation, and advocates, where practicable, restoration of free enterprise.

Revolutionary Communist Party—A minor group professing Trotskyism, existing in almost all countries. They are left-wing communists, more radical and revolutionary than Stalinists, official communists, with whom they are in conflict.

Falangists—The Spanish Political Party founded in 1933 ; based on fascisin ; emphasized Spanish national tradition.

I. L. P.—Independent Labour Party in England—a small semi-radical group in British Labour with a Marxist programme—stands between Labour Party and Communists.

Communist Party—is the world organisation of Marxist Socialists which once operated through branch national parties very loosely affiliated to the Communist International or "Comintern', now abolished by the order of Stalin. The 'International' has again been revived under the name of 'Cominform', which is said to be the common Information Bureau of Communist Parties of nine countries of Europe.

Fianna Fail—De Valera's radical Nationalist party in Ireland.

Labour Party (England)—It is the British Socialist Party composed of Trade Unions, Socialists and Co-operative Societies which came into official existence in 1908. It aims at bringing about, by legislation, changes which will benefit the poorer classes. Nationalization of basic industries and public utilities is the main programme of the party. The party's policy is not based on Marxism—instead, it is derived from the ethical idealism of the labour, co-operative and radical movements and the practical rationalism of Fabianism.

French Parties—(1) *Mouement Republican Populaire* (M.R.P.) is a bulkwork against communism and its programme has been moderately leftist in character and at the same time it contains strong catholic elements. The party stands for limited nationalization, collective bargaining, full employment and development of exports. (2) *Radical Socialist Party* is a left centre party. The party favours constitutional reform and better distribution of taxes and reform of social security. (3) *Independent Republicans* are solidly devoted to defence of free enterprise. (4) *Socialist Party.*

Liberal Party—Progressive party of England, stands for free

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trade, was known as Whig Party in the 18th and 19th centuries. Once a great political force, but now an insignificant party.

Anti-Fascist People's Freedom League, Burma (A.F.P.F.L.)—is the national organisation of the Burmese people, started by its President late General Aung San who organised Burmese insurrection against Japan in early 1945.

Popular Front—Political Party in different countries composed of communists, socialists and other democratic parties against Fascism and Nazism.

INDIAN POLITICAL PARTIES

Indian National Congress—The object of the Indian National Congress as adopted in 1948 is "the well-being and advancement of the people of India and the establishment in India by peaceful and legitimate means of a Co-operative Commonwealth based on equality of opportunity and of political, economic and social rights and aiming at world peace and fellowship." The Congress advocates a democratic secular Government with a welfare State as the goal. It endeavours to maintain a strictly independent position in world affairs.

Communist Party of India—Organised in its present form in 1934. The party moulds its policy with reference to the policy of Russia in international affairs, rather than according to the conditions obtaining in India. They look to Russia for guidance and inspiration and follow orthodox international communist line. The party's aim is "the organisation of the toiling masses in the struggle for the victorious anti-imperialist and agrarian revolution for complete national independence, for the establishment of a people's democratic state led by the working class, for the realisation of the dictatorship of the proletariat, and the building up of socialism according to the teachings of Marxism and Leninism."

Proja Socialist Party—Formed by the fusion of the Socialist Party and the Kisan Mazdoor Proja Party. Party declares as its objective the establishment of a democratic socialist society in India.

Forward Bloc—came into existence in 1938 when Subhas Bose sought to rally leftists against the Congress orthodoxy. It favours a programme of direct action and repudiates all compromise. The party's objective now is the establishment of Socialist State in India with complete severence of relations from the British Commonwealth.

Forward Bloc (Marxist)—This is a group which has severed its connection with the parent body and formed a new party on January 23, 1950. The Desh Sevak Party of Punjab merged into it.

Bharat Sevak Samaj—A new national organisation brought into existence as a result of Government initiative. It is a scheme evolved to rally all patriots for the task of quickly building up economic strength of the country, promoting the social well-being of the community and mitigating privations and hardship of its less-favoured sections. It is not a political organisation. It welcomes into its fold men of all thoughts, save those who believe in destroying the present order of things by violent methods and those who want communal and sectarian idealism.

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Scheduled Caste Federation—It was established by Dr. Ambedkar. It has no political or economic platform. It had centred all its agitation for demanding extraordinary privileges. After partition it has changed its outlook.

Hindu Mahasabha—The aim of the Mahasabha is the protection and promotion of all that contribute to the advancement, strength and glory of Hindu Rashtra, Hindu culture and Hindu polity, and as a means to that end, to achieve Hindu Raj and re-establish the integrity of the State of Bharat by constitutional means.

Peasants and Workers Party—The party's programme includes "severance of all connection with British imperialism, abolition of landlordism without compensation, confiscation of foreign capital invested in banks and industries." The programme also urges nationalisation of big industries, banks and insurance companies and to perpetuate the present-day social injustice by believing in the re-organisation of States on a linguistic basis. This is a Marxist-Leninnist Party following the guidance of Cominform.

Democratic Vanguard—This party was formed in 1943 by those who seceded from the Radical Democratic Party. Its object is the "attainment of the democratic revolution" in India.

Rastriya Swayam Sevak Sangh—It was started in 1925. Its objects are the military training of the Hindus, development of social consciousness and building up of character, and promotion of physical, intellectual and moral well-being of the Hindus and the establishment of Hindu Rashtra. The party has now stated its main objective as revival of Hindu culture.

Akali Dal—A politico-religious party of a section of the Sikhs. It aims at the establishment of a Punjabi Suba as a homeland for the Sikhs within Indian Union and advocates the adoption of Gurumukhi language as State language for the Punjab State.

Socialist Republican Party—was started by late Sarat Chandra Bose in 1948 with the object of complete independence of India free from all foreign influences. The setting up of Socialist Republic on the linguistic basis and the establishment in the country of a Union of Socialist Republics are the main objects of the party.

Sarvodaya Samaj—A fellowship of those who believe in the Gandhian ideals. It is not an organisation but a voluntary brotherhood of constructive workers who have faith in Gandhian ideals of truth and non-violence. Its central idea is the insistence on the purity of means in the same way as of ends. Khadi, Harijan uplift, service to Adibasis, leprosy relief work and promotion of communal harmony form the main activities of Samaj.

Revolutionary Socialistic Party of India—preaches Marxist doctrine and wants to establish a socialist State in India through revolution.

Revolutionary Communist Party of India—Another Marxist party in India which calls itself Leninist, and characterizes Congress as bourgeois organisation. It is anti-Soviet with Trotskyite leanings.

Kishan Party—is a peasant movement with socialistic outlook. Its programme is the amelioration of the Indian peasants. Though

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separate from the Congress, its programme is identical with Congress.

Bharatiya Jan Sangh—A political party founded in 1951 by Dr. Shyama Prosad Mukerjee. It believes in Akhand Bharat and also demands a more stiff attitude towards Kashmir question.

All India Muslim Majlis—Progressive Nationalist Party of Muslims, was opposed to creation of Pakistan and supporters of Congress ideals.

Jamiat-ul-ulema-Hind—An organisation of Moslem divines and religious teachers. It has always supported the political programme of the Congress. It was a supporter of Indian independence on religious grounds. It has now dropped its political programme.

Shia Political Conference—represents Shia Moslems and is the most important minority among the supporters of the Congress.

Momin Ansar Conference—Its main policy has centred on opposition to Muslim League and to Pakistan. The Conference is the full supporter of Congress politics.

Swatantra Party—At the time of the formation of the party, the sponsors declared—"Social justice and welfare can be reached more certainly and properly in other ways than through the techniques of the so-called socialism. We hold social justice and welfare should not be sought to be brought about by violence or State compulsion with all necessary accompaniments of injustice, expropriation and repudation of obligations but must be brought about into being by the spread of doctrine of trusteeship adumbrated by Gandhiji."

Dravida Munnetra Kazhakam—A party of South India consisting mainly of non-Brahmins, who are against the dominion of North India and the superiority of the Brahmins. They want to create a separate State in the South.

POLITICAL TERMS

Absolutism—The system of unlimited government, the governed having no representation, vote or other share in the administration. An absolute ruler governs in accordance with his own will without consulting the people and without being bound by any law. Absolutism is opposite to constitutional government and democracy and the antithesis to the separation of powers.

Amnesty—An act of Government granting exemption from criminal prosecution and punishment.

Ambassador—High ranking minister representing his Government in a foreign country.

Appeasement—A policy of pacification or yielding to the demands of a potential enemy rather than opposing him by force.

Anschluss—German word meaning a "joining." Politically, it refers to the union of Austria with Germany effected on March 12, 1938.

Apartheid—is a South African word, literally meaning 'apart-hood' or the separation of the black from the white races in South Africa. The process is also known as segregation (literally, separated from the block), affects the movements of non-whites, restrict-

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ing their choice of residence, property, choice of occupation and marriage. It is today a definite policy of the governing National Party of South Africa which came into power in 1948.

Agent Provocateur—A French term for political agent sent during political or social conflicts into the adversary's ranks to provoke in the guise of an adherent incidents and compromising actions.

Autonomy—In political sense, limited self-government, short of independence. The objective test of autonomy is recognition that the group may legislate for itself.

Authoritarianism—The political system in which the government is based on what is claimed to be the natural need for a strong and resolute authority to direct the State without reference to the fluctuating opinions of the people, as opposed to the democratic system based on the freely expressed opinions. The term is a milder name for absolutism. Totalitarian systems like Fascism, Nazism and Communism are extreme forms of authoritarian government, although Soviet Union would reject the application of the term to itself.

Anti-Semitism—Opposition to the Jewish race. The movement became conspicuous in Europe during the last quarter of the 19th century. The movement appears to be based on economic rather than on religious or political cause. It flared up strongly in Nazi Germany under Hitler.

Armed Neutrality—The position assumed by a neutral when it serves notice on belligerents that it is prepared to protect its neutral rights by force.

Autocracy—means the unlimited rule of an individual.

Autarky—The idea that a country should produce everything it requires and cut down foreign imported goods.

Armistice—Agreement between combatants to cease fighting. It may be either temporary for the purpose of removing the wounded or burying the dead or it may be a preliminary to a general peace.

Anarchism—A political doctrine standing for the abolition of every organised authority and of State machinery. The anarchists hold that every form of government tantamounts to tyranny. They want to do away with all forms of State and Government and substitute for them free associations of individuals or groups without any coercive organisation, without written law, police courts, prisons or armed forces. In such a society men are expected to live together harmoniously on the basis of voluntarily respected mutual contracts.

Balance of Power—This phrase means the preservation of an equality of strength between countries or groups of countries. The idea is that no one country shall become too powerful for the safety of the others.

Bamboo Curtain—Military, political and propaganda barriers, isolating territory controlled by Chinese communists.

Bicameral System—That form of Government which consists of two separate Houses or Chambers in which the concurrence of both is necessary to the enactment of legislation. Adopted to act as a check upon hasty or ill-considered legislation.

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Bilateral—Two-sided, a term used for agreements concluded between only two parties, as distinct from multilateral agreements which are between several parties.

Biological Warfare—Warfare in which living organisms, specially disease germs, are used against human, animal and plant life; also warefare involving the use of synthetic chemicals against plants.

Bhoodan Movement—The rehabilitation of landless agricultural worker is the primary objective of Bhoodan movement. The philosophy behind the Bhoodan movement is that 'all the land belongs to God or the community and therefore it must be shared with those who are ready to work on it for the community". This movement was started on April 18, 1951 by Acharya Vinoba Bhave. While it began as a mere land-gift movement, it has now grown to incorporate the *Sampattidan, Koopdan, Haldan, Grihadan, Buddhidan, Shramdan*, etc.

Blockade—A term used in international law for the prevention of goods entering or leaving an enemy country by land or sea. Neutral States are affected most by a blockade by sea, for if their ships try to approach the ports of blockaded country, they and their cargoes are liable to be confiscated by the blockading force.

Bloc—means an association of legislative members or of political workers of different parties, formed to support a certain measure or ministry. A French word meaning 'mass' or 'group.'

Bourgeois—French word for the middle class. They comprise capitalists, manufacturers, merchants, bankers, generally all independent producers, traders and employers, also directors and managers and members of the professions with a corresponding income and social status, in contrast to the *Proletariat*, the working class without any property who live on selling their labour.

Bolshevism—accepts the doctrine that an irreconcilable antagonism exists between the propertied class or bourgeois and the property-less workers. It invites as inevitable and necessary class war, the object of which is the destruction of all classes, except the proletariat, in whose interest and by whom future society will be organised and governed on a communistic basis.

Book burning—A systematic destruction, usually by a Government, of books believed to contain dangerous ideas, hence, the supression of ideas.

Brain Trust—In U.S.A. the nickname for a group of economists and businessmen who were officially advisers to President F. D. Roosevelt during the first year of his presidency and are believed to have greatly influenced his 'New Deal' policy. The term has since been applied to other groups of experts believed to be influencing Government.

Brainwashing—The forcible replacement of one set of political ideas by another set, specially through indoctrination or mental torture.

Buffer State—A small State established or preserved between two greater States to prevent direct clashes between them.

Bureaucracy—Government by an elaborate system of administrative departments and officials, which generally tends to become unwieldy and laborious in its operation. It produces red tape or over-

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systematization. Its most frequently charged defects are rigidity, conservatism and spirit of routine.

Capitalism.—The economic system founded on free enterprise and private ownership of the means of production and distribution.

Caucus—A meeting or conference of members of a political party in an ensuing election or other political contest.

Civil Disobedience—Refusal to co-operate with Government without, however, using violence.

Coalition—is a combination of political parties having different or opposed interests, effected with the object of carrying through or resisting a particular policy.

Commonwealth of Nations—The Commonwealth is an association of several sovereign independent States—the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Malaya Federation and Ghana etc. The status of the Commonwealth was settled at the Imperial Conference of 1926, which described Commonwealth as "autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations." A further important pronouncement was made by the Prime Ministers' Meeting of 1949 which declared, "The Government of India have....declared and affirmed India's desire to continue her full membership of the Commonwealth of Nations and her acceptance of the King as the symbol of free association of the independent member nations and as such as the head of the Commonwealth."

Communism—A form of socialism characterized by the principle of control by society of all economic activities, especially the common ownership of property, personal as well as productive. It differs from socialism in a strict sense in that the latter aims at the social ownership only of property used for production, not of personal property.

Concordat—An agreement made between a ruler and the Pope.

Constituent Assembly—is an assembly convened for the purpose of drawing up a constitution, but it comes only—and this is the vital point—after there is a breakdown in the existing machinery of Government and a change has been brought about in the *status quo*.

Condominium—A territory over which responsibility is shared by two administering powers.

Conscientious Objector—A person who refuses to enlist in the military service on moral on religious grounds.

Contraband—Goods or merchandise the importation or exportation of which is forbidden ; in war time, applied specially as between neutrals and belligerents.

Cold War—A struggle between two nations or groups of nations, waged by use of political and economic strategy, propaganda and other measures short of armed combat.

Collective Responsibility—In countries with parliamentary Government, the joint responsibility of the Government to the Parliament. The Government is responsible for the political actions of

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each member of it and each member is responsible for the actions of the Government.

Collective Security—Security for all the members of an association of nations from aggression by any other nation or nations.

Colony—A territory permanently settled by people from another land. A measure of internal self-government may be granted to a colony. It may then become responsible for its own social policy—labour, education or housing. But the mother country or Colonial Power still maintains the right to veto (forbid) acts passed by the local Government. It is only when a colony takes over its police and defence force and controls its own foreign affairs that it is said to be completely independent of the Colonial Power concerned.

Confederation—An association of States for mutual cooperation and defence. But a confederation does not conduct the foreign policy of its members and has no direct power over the citizens of the member States. The United States was a confederation during the teething period 1778-87, but then became a federation with central (federal) Government eventually locatd in Washington.

Corporate State—A State organised politically on the basis of vocational corporations instead of territorial units. A corporate Parliament does not consist of representatives of territoral constituencies but of delegates of professional corporation who are sent to the Parliamnet according to the quota system.

Corridor—A strip of the territory of one State running through that of another, usually to give access to the sea.

Coup D'etat—applies to deliberate action to seize power, undertaken by a group of relatively minor authority; also applies to a bold measure taken by a Government to prevent a supposed or actual danger.

Customs Union—A union of States or nations for the purpose of establishing orderly trade with one another and a common tariff on imports, exports and goods in transit as now established in Low Countries of Europe.

Democracy—has now one meaning for the communist countries and another meaning for the other free countries. It is derived from the Greek *demos* (people) and *Kratein* (to rule). Hence it means Government of the people, a principle which Abraham Lincoln extended to Government of the people, by the people, for the people. The ancient Greeks practised a form of direct democracy. That is, all the people voted for or against laws. That was all right for small City-States, but in our modern States with their large population the indirect method is more suitable—the passing of laws by representatives elected by the people. The Western democracy is based on the principle that at certain intervals the population can choose between two or more political parties. In Communist 'democracies' voters can only choose from a simple list of candidates, who represent the same party. This is now the two meanings of democracy.

Demarche—A diplomatic term from the French, used for representations, whether moderate proposals or severe threats, made by one State to another through diplomatic envoys.

Diarchy—A form of government in which the supreme power of the State is vested in two bodies or persons.

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Diehards—Extremely orthodox and unbending members of a party ; it was specially applied to the members of the Conservative party.

Dictatorship—Control of Government or ruling power by a minority or by an individual. In ancient Rome, the dictator was recognised as a ruler. In modern times, dictatorship flared up in Europe after the World War I. Mussolini in Italy and Hitler in Germany seized power unconstitutionally but with the support of the people.

Diplomacy—Art of negotiation specially between countries. Each country possesses a diplomatic service to carry on negotiation with foreign countries. Some diplomats, such as ambassadors, ministers, envoys, etc., go abroad and live in a foreign capital to keep in touch with the Government. Their business is to watch over interests of their country and to send regular reports upon all that concern it.

Detente—means the ending of tension or strained relations between States, as for instance, what we call the Cold War.

Disarmament—The lowering or reduction of armaments and armed forces. Disarmament can be unilateral (one sided), meaning the decision by one nation to cut its armed forces without waiting for other countries to follow suit ; or multilateral. In the latter case, a combination of States decides to reduce armed forces to a set pattern. Disarmament now usually implies world disarmament under controls—that is, with a form of inspection to ensure that any country which says it is disarming is really carrying out its word.

Dollar Diplomacy—A nickname for the foreign policy of U.S.A. for the purposes of expanding American financial and commercial interests abroad under the guise of promoting international friendship.

Electoral College—Any body of electors limited in number, meeting in one place to choose a public official.

Espionage—A French word which expresses more than English word spying ; it implies an organised system.

Extra-Territoriality—The legal fiction that foreign diplomats and diplomatic agencies are outside the country of residence in spite of physical presence. Embassies, etc., form foreign islands, so to speak, within the territory of a State. They are not subject to its laws.

Extradition—Surrender of a fugitive from justice by one country or State to the authorities of another.

Federation—A system of Government in which smaller States or the provinces of a State, hand over certain powers to a Central Government. The smaller units keep some control over their own internal affairs, but usually entrust foreign affairs and defence to the Central Government.

Fellow Traveller—One who sympathises with, and often, furthers the programme or ideals of, a group (originally the Communist Party) without being a member of the group.

Fifth Column—Secret supporters of an enemy engaged in sabotage or other subversive activity within defence lines.

Filibuster—Obstructionist tactics in legislative bodies.

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Genocide—A calculated attempt to destroy systematically a racial, religious or political group ; also an effort to destroy the language, religion, or culture of a group.

Gentleman's Agreement—An informal international agreement based on a verbal exchange or corespondence, without a treaty or convention being signed.

Gerrymander—A practice of laying out electoral districts to ensure the majority of votes for party in power.

Guerilla—Irregular warfare. Guerilla warfare consists in attacks upon a regular army by bands of irregular troops, usually the inhabitants of an invaded country.

Hegemony—Leadership ; especially of one State or a group.

Imperialism—The policy of empire-building and conquests transcending national frontiers. It now means every policy of conquest and colonial expansion.

Internationals—The socialist movement in which socialists from many countries are united. There have been three such movements or Internationals, and each has held several Congresses. *First International*—accepted a programme drawn up by Karl Marx and had lasted from 1866 to 1874. *Second International*, in which there was trade union element, was organised in 1889. It sought to compass the aims of Socialism by constitutional, not revolutionary action and it held several congresses between 1882 and 1930. *The Third International* was organised in Moscow and was revolutionary in its aims. It declared in favour of establishing communism by force.

Iron Curtain—A barrier created by such means as censorship and prohibition, of free travel to isolate Russian-controlled territory from outside contracts ; hence, any similar barrier against communication.

Isolationism—The path of keeping aloof from affairs of other countries.

Joint Responsibility—The guiding principle of the Cabinet system of Government. Although every minister is in charge of a particular portfolio, all ministers are jointly responsible to the legislature and a vote of no-confidence against one is a censure on all.

Lame Duck—Members of the legislature who fail to get re-elected but continue to function as legislators until the new legislature meets, are known as Lame Ducks. The term Lame Duck was first used in the United States.

Leftist—One who belongs to a radical or revolutionary party ; also one who holds or advocates ultraliberal principles.

Lend-Lease—The system of lending and leasing supplies and installations to each other, developed by the allies in the World War II. It was started by President Roosevelt.

Marxism—The socialist doctrine following the theories of Karl Marx (Germany). His ideas are that all wealth is produced by labour and should go to labour. The labour is deprived of its fruits by the capitalist ; so the worker must prepare for class war in which capitalism will be destroyed. An essence of his theories is that history is largely determined by economic forces.

Moratorium—A period during which no business engagements

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are completed or debts or liabilities enforced. A moratorium is declared by the Government in times of a financial crisis.

Most-Favoured Nation Clause—A clause customary in treaties of commerce, whereby signatories undertake to extend automatically to the other party any reduction in tariff or other economic favour which they may in future accord to any other country. Thus if a country at a later date grants a tariff reduction in respect of some articles to some other country, this will also apply to all the countries with which it has previously made trade treaties.

Nationalization—Taking management by the State of trades and industries, etc., with or without compensation, *i.e.*, changes from private to State ownership.

Naturalization—The word is used for the admission of a person of foreign nationality into that of a country he desires to adopt. An oath of allegiance has to be taken.

Non-aggression Pact—Treaty between two or more States pledging each not to attack the other and to settle their disputes by negotiation or arbitration.

Non-intervention—Generally the principle of abstaining from interference with the internal affairs of other nations. It rests on the recognition of sovereignty as the permanent factor in international relations and is one of the most often involved principles in the policies of the world.

Neutrality—In international law, the condition of a State abstaining from participating in a war between other States and maintaining an impartial attitude in its dealings with the belligerent States, with the recognition of this impartiality by the warring States.

Opposition—Freedom to oppose the existing Government is fundamental to democracy and the British practice of calling the Opposition "His Majesty's Opposition" on the analogy of "His Majesty's Government" is a recognition of the fact that the opposition is as loyal and essential to the State as the Government.

Ordinance—That which is ordained by authority. Ordinance is an act promulgated by the Chief of the State without passing through the legislature of the country.

Panch Shila—Five principles of co-existence jointly enunciated by Jawaharlal Nehru and Chinese Prime Minister Chou En-lai. The five principles of Panch Shila are (1) mutual respect for one another's territorial integrity and sovereignty, (2) non-aggression, (3) non interference in one another's internal affairs, for any reasons of economic, political or ideological character, (4) equality and mutual benefit and (5) peaceful co-existence.

Parole—An oath taken by a prisoner of war that, if released, he will not try to escape, nor during a war bear arms against his captors.

Partisan—A member of a guerilla band working behind enemy lines and engaged in such activities as sabotage, demolition, and diversionary attacks.

Power Politics—(1) The policy of maintaining and expanding national power for power's sake. (2) the sum total of international relations in a world consisting of soveregn States whose existence depends on power, (3) by a more narrow definition, the use of threats

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and force for the achievement of political objects in international relations without consideration of right and justice.

Protectorate—A territory not formally annexed, but in respect of which, by treaty, grant, usage, sufferance and other lawful means, the other State has power and jurisdiction.

Purge—Expulsion, possibly killing of unreliable, unruly, disobedient or merely inconvenient members of a party.

Prize Court—This is a court of law set up in time of war to decide whether a ship and its cargo captured by the navy is a lawful prize or not. If it is decided that a captured ship is enemy property or a cargo is contraband, they are sold and the proceeds are distributed to all members of the navy at the end of the war.

Pacifism—Opposition to war or military force in any form. Pacifists believe that all international disputes should be settled by arbitration. The various movements towards world peace are not necessarily wholly pacifistic, as they often advocate defensive war and oppose only aggressive war.

Privy Purse—In England allowance from civil list for personal use of the Sovereign.

Prohibition—Government action which prohibits by law the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, except for medical or sacramental use.

Plural Voting—The system of allowing a person to cast more than one vote in the same election. The voter is eligible to vote in more than one constituency by virtue of its special position, *i.e.*, a city and a university vote by the same person.

Provincial Autonomy—The system (specially in Indian Constitution) under which States enjoy complete autonomy as far as the States subjects are concerned and have concurrent jurisdiction with the Centre on subjects of common interest.

Proportional Representation—is the method used in an election by which the votes are so counted that each party has representation in the elective body in proportion to its strength, so as to ensure the representation of minorities.

Plebiscite—An expression of the will of the whole people, sought in ratification or disapproval of a particular measure, already decided but regarding which their elected representatives hesitate to act. It comes from the Latin *plebs*, the common people.

Protocol—The rough-draft of a diplomatic document on which diplomatic transactions tentatively commence.

Privileges, Parliamentary—"The sum of peculiar rights enjoyed by each House collectively as a constituent part of the High Court of Parliament, and by members of each House individually, without which they could not discharge their functions and which exceed those possessed by other bodies or individuals."—*Erskine May.*

Pourparler—An informal preliminary conference of representatives of different groups, functions or countries looking to a formal agreement, settling disputed questions between the parties.

Police State—A tolalitarian State having repressive Government control of radio, press, culture, and economic and political life.

Pogrom—A Russian word for 'devastation', a term for mass

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raids on Jewish Quarters in Tsarist Russia in which killing, looting, and arson were practised. They were later introduced into Germany by Nazis.

Public Relations—The activities of a corporation, Government, or other organisation in building and maintaining good relations with the general public or with special groups.

Proletariate—The wage-earning class of a community collectively, i.e., property-less class dependent on sale of labour. In Marxism, the proletariate is opposed to the bourgeoisie, the employing class, and will eventually overthrow it.

Politbureau—Short for political bureau, the leading body of communist parties. The communist party of Soviet Union has a Politbureau which is regarded by many as real Government of Russia Every communist party in whatever country has a Politbureau.

Public Utilities—Electric light, gas, telephone, street car and other services of use to all members of the community.

Quislings—Local traitors, named after the Norwegian traitor, Major Quisling, who betrayed his country to the Germans ; specially those who quietly prepared the way for Germany in her neighbouring countries.

Racism—The assumption that certain races are naturally superior to others, also any dactrine or programme based on such an assumption.

Radical—Persons of political views quite different from those held by the majority of persons who, in politics, are in favour of sweeping reforms or other changes in Government or laws.

Reds—A slang term for revolutionaries, special communists, derived from Red Flag, the traditional symbol of revolt.

Republic—State in which the sovereign power resides in the electorate, the body of the people having a voice in electing representatives to rule them. There is no hereditary sovereign to rule.

Residuary Powers—In Federal Constitution where the powers are divided between the federal centre and the federating States or units under a system of three lists—federal, State or provincial and concurrent. Powers relating to new spheres of administration not covered by either of the three lists are known as residuary powers.

Referendum—Bringing a proposed law before the people as a whole for decision.

Reciprocity—Exchange of commercial privilege. It is usually experienced when two nations make tariff concessions to each other

Rightist—In politics, a members of the rights, a conservative or royalist.

Sabotage—At first this word was confined in its meaning to malicious waste or destruction of an employer's property by workmen, as ameans of enforcing demands in labour disputes. Now it is being applied more broadly, to define any malicious crippling or destruction of property, especially as practised by foreign secret agents or sympathisers for the purpose of damaging military equipment.

Sanctions—Coercive measures taken to ensure fulfilment of international treaty obligations. Sanctions were provided in the covenant of the League of Nations against countries resorting to war in

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defiance of the Covenant. U.N. Charter also provides for sanctions, though it does not use the word 'sanctions'.

Satellite—A state or country politically and economically dominated by a more powerful neighbouring one.

Self-determination—The principle that every distinct people or nation ought to have the right to determine the question of its independence, its form of Government and its political destiny.

Sphere of Influence—A region normally undeveloped, politically under the determinative power of a foreign nation.

Splinter Group—In politics, a group broken away from a larger, original organisation.

Straw vote—Unofficial polling of public opinion.

Suzerainty—A state that exercises political control over another State in relation to which he is sovereign.

Syndicalism—A socialist movement aiming at trade union socialism instead of State Socialism.

Scorched Earth—A wartime policy of destroying all resources when defending forces have to withdraw before the invader.

Tammany Hall—A name given to the Democratic Party's organisation in New York city, which sprang from Tammany Society of 1805. One of the famous political machines of American history—very influential in New York city and State politics, also in the Democratic party on a national scale.

Theocracy—A State governed by God or priests.

Totalitarian—A believe in the complete centralization Government control under the political group and suppression of other parties.

Total War—denotes the present form of war in which the distinction between combatants and non-combatants are fast disappearing.

Trotskyism—The views of Trotsky on socialism, revolution and the development of Soviet Union and the movement propagating these ideas. After the overthrow of Trotsky in 1925-27, a number of communists supporting his opposition to Stalin formed revoluptionary communist parties which in 1936 establihed Fourth International, which held conference in Paris in 1936 and 1948. They are left-wing communists, more radical and revolutionary than Stalinists, the official communists with whom they are in conflict. These Trotskites have appeared in various countries as 'Revolutionary Communist Party,' 'Revolutionary Socialist Party, etc.

Trust Territory—A territory administered by a State appointed by and responsible to, the United Nations after the 2nd World War.

Trusteeship—Administration by a member of the United Nations of an area not yet ready for self-government.

Ultimatum—Final statement of demands, rejection of which is assumed to lead at once to breaking-off friendly relations and to war.

Unilateral action—Action taken by one party to an agreement without consulting the other parties in international affairs.

Underground—Organised, secret opposition to the Government or force in power.

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V. E. Day—Victory in Europe, May 8th, 1945, the day of the official end of the European phase of the World War II.

V. J. Day—Victory in Japan, August 14, 1945, the day making the end of the war in Japan.

Whigs—Old name for English liberals, no longer in use. It was the description of liberal party in English Parliament after 1680.

Veto—The term is most used today with reference to the United Nations but its history dates from Roman times. *'Veto'* is Latin for "I forbid it"; it was the word used by the Roman magistrate when invoking the law against some action. In many modern States, the King or President has the power of vetoing measures passed by the legislature. In the United Nations, only the five permanent members out of the eleven members of the Security Council have the power of veto, which prevents a decision being taken even if every other member is in favour of it.

Welfare State—A State that, by its concern with public health, insurance against sickness and unemployment and similar measures, assumes a large share of responsibility for the welfare of its citizens.

Whip—A member of a political party assigned to the task of rounding up members of that party to ensure their votes and to hold them in line with the party policy.

Wishful Thinking—signifies optimism not always founded on reality.

Writ—A document directed to some public officer or private person, commanding him to do a certain act therein specified.

PLANS, POLICIES, TREATIES, ALLIANCES, COUNCILS, CHARTERS, CONFERENCES, ETC.

Anzus Treaty—was signed on Sept. 1, 1951, under which members acknowledge that an attack in the Pacific against any will involve all, and agree to "act to meet the common danger." Members are : U.S. New Zealand and Australia.

Atlantic Charter—A joint declaration was made by Roosevelt and Churchill on August 14, 1941, stating (1) No aggrandisement, territorial or other. (2) No territorial changes without expressed wish of the people concerned. (3) Right of all people to choose the form of their own Government. (4) Restoration of sovereign rights and self-government to those who have been forcibly deprived of them. (5) Access on equal terms to trade and to raw materials of the world. (6) Fullest collaboration between all nations in economic field. (7) Final peace of the whole world after destruction of Nazi tyranny.

Arab League—The Arab States formed a Union by a pact signed in Cairo, March 22, 1945 for the purpose of maintaining Arab solidarity. The League consists of Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Lebanon, Yemen and Libya. Provision was made for admission of the Arab portion of Palestine upon achievement of independence. The League's Council approved customs and payments agreements on Sept. 7, 1958.

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Arab Security Pact—This is known as Arab League Collective Security and Economic Co-operation Pact concluded on July 17, 1950. The pact has been ratified by Egypt, Iraq, Syria, Jordan and Lebanon. This treaty links the signatory States into military, political and economic alliance, pledging resistance to armed attack and reaffirming their obligations under Arab League and U.N. charters.

Benelux—This is the combination of three countries—Belgium, Luxemburg and the Netherlands, which have established a complete Customs Union among themselves. No longer are there any tariff barriers between these three countries. All three are now together called Benelux. The Benelux has been an influential example of closer economic co-operation for recovery of Europe.

Bandung Conference—The meeting of the Representatives of 30 African and Asian nations held at Bandung, Indonesia, April 18-24, 1955. The aim was to promote economic and cultural co-operation and to oppose colonialism. This was more or less achieved in an atmosphere of cordiality.

Brussels Pact—The pact was signed in March 1948 by Britain, France and the Benelux countries. It is a military defence pact and also equally an economic co-operation pact. It pledges all five countries to cease from bilateral injury to one another and to enlarge their commercial exchanges.

It was designed "to fortify and preserve the principles of democracy, personal freedom and political liberty, the rule of law and constitutional traditions."

CENTO—After the revolutionary coup in Iraq, it withdrew from Bagdad Pact and hence the name of the pact was changed into CENTO (*Central Treaty Organisation*).

The pact's purpose continues to be that of providing a defence shield against Soviet penetration.

Colombo Plan—This plan began on July 1, 1951. It was a six year plan of economic aid to South and South-East Asia agreed on at the British-sponsored Conference at Colombo in January 1950 by Great Britain, Australia, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand, Pakistan. Later Malaya, Singapore, North Borneo, Sarawak promised co-operation. Burma and Indonesia sent observers to meetings of Consultative Committee in London. The Project will raise £1,368 million, helped by Governments, raised by bank loans, contributions, etc., to support mills, power plants, railways, irrigation, other capital goods, thus combating poverty and communism. United States is not a participant, but will consult on Point Four Funds in Asia. The International Bank of Reconstruction and Development will co-operate. Britain will contribute £100,000,000, Canada and Australia each voted £25,000,000 for the first year.

Cominform—Communist Information Bureau was set up at a secret meeting in Poland of communist delegates from nine European nations on Oct. 5, 1947. It was the successor body to the Comintern (Communist International) which was dissolved in 1943. The original Cominform linked the Communist Party of Russia with those of the East European States and those of France and Italy, the two West

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European countries with the biggest Communist Party membership.

Commonwealth of Nations—is a free association of ten sovereign independent States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Ghana and Malaya Federation etc. The members are bound together by the community of ideals and interests. All the members owe common allegiance to the Queen of England as the Head of the Commonwealth and is the symbol of their free association in the Commonwealth, except India and Pakistan where Presidents are the Heads of the State. These countries, India and Pakistan, do not give allegiance to the Queen but recognise the Queen as Symbol of their free association as Members of the Commonwealth and as such the Head of the Commonwealth.

Commonwealth Parliamentary Association—was founded in 1911. The aim of the Association is "to promote understanding and co-operation for common purposes between those engaged in parliamentary Government of the countries of the Commonwealth by the establishment of machinery for the exchange of information and individual visits and for the organisation of conferences between members of the legislatures of the Commonwealth and also to promote understanding and co-operation by similar means between those members and the members of legislatures outside the Comonwealth having close political and parliamentary associations with them."

Council of Europe—An institution of consultative character founded on May 5, 1949 in London. It consists of a Committee of Ministers (composed of Foreign Ministers of member countries) and a consultive assembly (delegations from several parliaments), the former providing means of co-operation between Governments, the latter a means through which the aspiration of the European peoples may be formulated and expressed. Every member Government has to "accept the principles of the rule of law and of the enjoyment by all persons within its jurisdiction of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

The member countries are—Belgium, Denmark, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxemburgh, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Turkey, United Kingdom, Iceland and German Federal Republic (*Associate Member*).

Dumbarton Oaks Conference—A meeting of the representatives of U.S.A., Great Britain, Russia and China held at estate known as Dumbarton Oaks in Washington, recommending on Oct. 9, 1944 the creation of the United Nations, an international security organisation.

Eastern Military Alliance—It is the military organisation of Communist States in Europe to offset North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), the Western Military Alliance.

Eisenhower Doctrine—A new political doctrine enunciated in 1951 by the U.S. President Eisenhower. The main features of the doctrine are as follows—(1) It is bilateral. It extends the U.S. offer of protection to individual Mid-East nations, but only at their request; it does not require organisation of the whole region to be effective.

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(2) Although it is designed principally to preserve the vast stretches of Arab territory from communism, it also applies to the Arabs' sworn enemy, Israel, without taking sides. (3) It is informal ; neither any nation nor the U.S. has to sign a new pact. (4) It is exclusively American and non-colonial. The U.S. is no longer coupled rigidly or identified in the Middle-East with Britain and France—and yet the doctrine in no way excludes them but, in fact, helps to preserve a Western influence behind which the British and French may rebuild.

European Economic Community (EEC)—Established by Rome treaty in January, 1958, and known informally as European Common Market. EEC provides for the development of a common market (including a customs union) and other measures of economic co-operation. Members are : Belgium, France, Italy, Luxemburg, Netherlands and West Germany.

European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC)—In May 1950 Schuman, French foreign minister, proposed a plan for pooling European coal and steel production under a single 'high authority' possessing supra-national powers. Outcome of the 'Schuman Plan' was the treaty of 18th April, 1951 signed by France, Belgium, Netherlands, Italy, Federal Germany and Luxemburg setting up the European coal and steel community. A common market for coal and iron ore was established in 1953 and for steel in May.

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)—An agreement to which most of the inportant trading nations outside the communist block subscribe. The main provisions of GATT, which establishes a common Code of conduct in international trade are : (1) that treatments accorded by one member to other shall be accorded to all (2) that new preferential agreements are not allowee (provision is however made for the establishment of customs union or free trade areas). Substantial and wiidespread tariff reductions have been negotiated through GATT.

Four Freedoms—President Roosevelt in his address to the Congress on Jan 6, 1941 defined four essential human freedoms—(1) Freedom of speech and expression, (2) Freedom of every person to worship God in his own way, (3) Freedom from want, (4) Freedom from fear. The programme was, substantially, incorporated in the Atlantic Charter (Aug. 1947).

Fourteen Points—The formulation of peace programme presented by U.S. President Woodrow Wilson on Jan. 8, 1918, in a message to American Congress for an equitable and enduring peace in settlement of World War I.

International Red Cross—Two international organisations are known respectively as International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies, both with headquarters in Geneva and Switzerland. The first of these is a wholly international agency unconnected with any national society, which attempts to maintain the basic Red Cross principle of the Geneva convention ; the second agency is a federation of autonomous national Red Cross Societies designed to further co-operation among them.

Japanese Peace Treaty—was signed at San Francisco on Sept. 8,

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1951 by 49 nations. The State of War between Japan and the Allies was terminated. Janan's full sovereignty was recognised and also its right to apply the U.N. membership. Japan recognised the independence of Korea, renounced all rights to Formosa, Pescadores, Kuriles, Sakhalin, the Pacific islands, formerly under mandate to Japan, the Antarctic area, Spartly Island and the Paracels ; Japan agrees to U.N. Trusteeship over Kyukyu and Daito Islands, the Bonius and Rosario Islands, the Voicano Islands, Parece Vela and Marcus Island.

Marshall Plan—Also known as Organisation for European Economic Co-operation. On June 5, 1947, the U.S. Secretary of State, Marshall, made a speech in the Harvard University in which he outlined the seriousness of the shortage of dollars for the economic situation of Europe and suggested American assistance in the economic recovery on the understanding that the European countries should reach some agreement about their requirements and the part they themselves would take in giving proper effect to the action of U.S. A conference of sixteen nations of Europe willing to work the Marshall Plan, began in Paris on July 12, 1947 and formulated an economic programme, which aimed at restoring European economy by the end of 1950 by (*a*) a strong production programme by each participant, (*b*) creation and maintenance of internal financial stability, (*c*) maximum mutual help between the participating countries and (*d*) a solution of the problem of the European trading deficit with the American countries. The report calculated the deficit for the 16 countries and their dependent territories at $22,440 million over 4-year period.

Munich Agreement—signed by Germany, Great Britain, France and Italy on September 29, 1938 at Munich. It provided for the cession to Germany of the Sudetan-German districts of Czechoslovakia : the new frontiers were guaranteed by all the signatories. The agreement was violated in March, 1939 by Hitler, seizing what was left of the country.

Mutual Security Programme—The plan of all economic aids by U.S.A. is contained in the *Mutual Security Act* of 1951, which sanctions millions of dollars for military, economic and technical assistance to free nations. A large part of mutual security fund is allocated for defence. The remaining fund is used to develop manufacturing facilities, to provide technical training and to ensure economic stability.

North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)—is an association of nations of North Africa and Western Europe. It is established by a treaty (North Atlantic Pact) signed in 1949 by United States, Canada, Iceland, United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Denmark, West Germany, Greece, Turkey, Italy and Portugal. They joined NATO to prepare for a possible armed attack of the Soviet Union and other Communist countries. NATO countries agreed to unite their military strength for collective defence and for preservation of peace and security in the North Atlantic area. The Council of NATO is its planning and organising body. A European army consisting of fifty or more divi-

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sions established. Supreme Headquarters of Allied Powers in Europe (SHAPE) was established in France.

Organisation of American States (OAS)—This organisation was chartered in 1948 for co-operation and mutual respect among American States.

Philadelphia Charter—was adopted by the International Labour Organisation at the Philadelphia Conference on May 10, 1944. It declares : that labour is not a commodity ; that freedom of expression and of association is essential to sustained progress ; that poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere ; and that war against want requires to be carried out with unrelenting vigour within each nation.

Point Four—On Jan. 20, 1949 President Truman outlined four major courses of action for American foreign policy. The fourth point from which the programme took its name, called upon the peoples of the United States "to help the free peoples of the world through their own efforts to produce more food, more clothing, more materials for housing and more mechanical power to lighten their burdens. . . . It must be a wide world effort for achievement of peace, plenty and freedom." Point Four is meant to make the scientific and technical knowledge of America available to free nations for their agricultural and industrial development. In Sept. 1950 funds became available for a Technical Co-operation Programme.

Pan-American Union—An international body created by the 21 American republics, was founded in 1890 as the International Bureau of American Republics. A general conference of the member Republics is held quinquennially known as *Pan-American Conference.* The Union is financed by its 21 members on the basis of population.

Rio Treaty—A treaty signed in August 1947, under which the signatory nations pledge themselves, in the event of aggression against any one of them, to provide assistance to that nation on request. Members are : United States, Cuba, Honduras, Mexico, Guatimala, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Haiti, Dominician Rep. Costa Rica, Panama, Venezuela, Ecuador, Colombia, Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, Brazil, Chile, Argentina and Uruguay.

S E A T O.—*South-East Asia Treaty Organisation* was signed in Manila on Sept. 8. 1954 by Australia, New Zealand. Pakistan, Philippines, France, Thailand, United Kingdom and United States covering the "general area of South-east Asia" to strengthen defence in S. E. Asia and to develop economic measures for social well-being. In case of aggression, its members are to "consult immediately in order to agree to measures which should be taken for common defence."

Tripartite Security Treaty—This is between U.S.A., Australia and New Zealand, signed on Sept. 8, 1951 (1) to settle by peaceful means any international disputes, (2) parties will consult together wherever the territorial integrety, political independence or security of any party is threatened in the Pacific.

Versailles, Treaty of—The peace treaty, ending the war of 1914-18 concluded between the Allies and Associated Powers and Germany on June 29, 1919. It imposed terms on Germany in regard to the

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occupation of Rhineland territory for a period of years, the surrender of Alsace-Lorraine to France and parts of East Prussia to Poland, the handing over to the Allies of Germany's colonial possessions. An important feature of this treaty was the establishment of League of Nations.

Warsaw Pact—The mutual defence treaty signed by the several Communist countries—U.S.S.R., Bulgaria, Albania, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Rumania and Hungary on 14th May, 1955 at Warsaw. The alliance was made necessary by the remilitarization of West Germany under Paris Pacts of 1954, the treaty is binding for 20 years but provides for its lapse as soon as an East-West collective security should come into force. A unified military Command was also set up.

Western European Union (W.E.U.)—Seven nations formally organised the Western European Union in 1955. Great Britain, France, Belgium, Italy, Luxemburgh, Netherlands and Western Germany ratified a treaty to establish the new defensive coalition.

United Nations Technical Assistance Administration (UNTTA)—was set up in 1950 to direct provision to Governments which request it, for technical assistance in the fields of economic development, social welfare and public administration. Important activities of UNTTA include the provision of experts in the various specialised fields, awards of fellowships and study or training grants in fields related to economic or social developments ; and the organisation of regional seminars and training centres in specialised fields.

CONSTITUTION OF INDIA

Sovereign Democratic Republic—Indian Constitution which was formally adopted on January 26, 1950 resolves to establish a sovereign democratic republic. The country is absolutely a republic, independent in its internal and external affairs. India being a democratic republic, the real fountain head of all powers is the people. This sovereignty is vested in the people of the country.

The aim of the Constitution is to secure for all its citizens—

Justice, social, economic and political ;

Liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship ;

Equality of status and of opportunity ; and to promote among them all

Fraternity, assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity of the Nation.

Territory and Extent—The following are the States of India each with a Governor as its head, such as Andhra Pradesh, Assam, West Bengal, Bihar, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Orissa Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Kerala, Rajasthan, Mysore, Jammu & Kashmir.

There are six territories, such as Himachal Pradesh, Delhi, Manipur, Tripura, Andaman & Nicobar Islands and Laccadive, Amindivi and Minicoy Islands and such other territories as may be acquired.

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Fundamental Rights—Fundamental Rights have been grouped under seven heads—

1. Right to equality.
2. Right of freedom.
3. Right against exploitation.
4. Right to freedom of religion.
5. Cultural and educational rights.
6. Right to property.
7. Right to constitutional remedies.

Right to Equality—Discrimination against any citizen on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth is prohibited. In public employment, Constitution assures equality to opportunity for all. It has established social equality by abolition of title, local and foreign.

Right to Constitutional Remedies—The Constitution guarantees the right to every citizen to move the Supreme Court for enforcement of all fundamental rights. And for that purpose the Supreme Court is given general powers to safeguard these rights as well as the power to propose particular remedies, such as *habeas corpus*, *mandamus*, etc.

Rights to Freedom—Guarantees (*a*) Freedom of speech and expression, (b) to assemble peacefully and without arms, (c) to form associations or unions, (*d*) to move freely throughout India, (*e*) to reside and settle in any part of India, (*f*) to acquire, hold and dispose of properties, (g) to practise any profession, trade or business.

Religious Freedom—Subject only to public order, mortality, health and some other essential provisions, all persons are equally entitled to freedom of conscience and the right to profess, practise and propagate religion freely.

Cultural and Educational Rights—The Constitution provides for the protection of the interests of linguistic, cultural and religious minorities and their right to establish and administer their own educational institutions.

Rights against exploitation—Traffic in human beings is declared a punishable offence. So too is *begar* (forced labour) without payment or any form of forced labour except compulsory service for the State for public purposes.

Rights to Property—No person shall be unlawfully deprived of his property, movable or immovable.

Directive Principles—The Indian Constitution also includes a set of directives enjoining the state to undertake within its means, a number of welfare measures. These are intended to assure citizens an adequate means of livelihood, raise the standard of living, improve public health, provide free and compulsory education for children, and assure that the operation of the economic system does not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the detriment of the common good.

UNION EXECUTIVE—*President*—The Executive at the centre consists of the President and a Council of Ministers. The President is the executive head of the Indian Republic. All the executive powers of the Union, including the Supreme command of the Defence Forces, are formally vested in the President and all executive actions are taken in his name. He is elected by an electoral college consisting

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of the elected members of both Houses of Parliament and Legislative Assemblies of the States, by the system of proportional representation by single transferable vote.

The qualifications of the office of the President—(1) He should be a citizen of India; (2) must have completed the age of 35 years; and (3) qualified for election as a member of the House of the People. He will not be eligible for election if he holds a job in Government, giving him financial rewards.

Term of office—The President holds office for five years and is eligible for re-election.

Salary and Allowance—The President draws a salary of Rs. 10,000 and usual allowance.

Impeachment—The President may be removed from office by impeachment for any violation of the constitution.

Vice-President—is the ex-officio Chairman of the Council of States (Rajya Sabha). Any citizen of India aged thirty-five years and above and qualified for the membership of the Council of States can be elected to this office by both the Houses of Parliament at a joint sitting on the basis of proportional representation by single transferable vote. His term of office is five years. When the President is ill, if he resigns or dies or is removed or is for any reason absent, his place will be taken by the Vice-President, till a new President is elected.

Council of Ministers—The Constitution provides for a *Council of Ministers*. The actual executive authority is discharged by the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers appointed by him. all of whom are collectively responsible to the Lok Sabha, the lower chamber of the Parliament. The Council of Ministers hold office during the pleasure of the President.

LEGISLATURE—*Parliament*—The Legislature of the Indian Union consists of the President and two Houses—(1) *Lok Sabha* (House of the People), (2) *Rajya Sabha* (Council of States).

The Lok Sabha—consists of not more than 520 members and not more than 20 members to represent the Union Territories chosen on the basis of adult franchise, the constituencies being so demarcated that there is not less than one member for every 500,000 of the population. The normal life of the House is five years. The minimum age for membership is 25 years for the Lower House. The Lok Sabha elects a Speaker and a Deputy Speaker from amongst its members.

Rajya Sabha—consists of not more than 250 members of whom 12 are nominated by the President. The nominated members should be men of learning and wide experience, such as artists, writers, scientists and social workers. The *Rajya Sabha* is not subject to dissolution, a third of its members retiring after every two years. The elections to the Sabha are indirect, the alloted quotas of the representatives of each State being elected by the elected members of the Legislative Assembly of that State in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote. The Vice-President of India is the ex-officio Chairman of the Council of States.

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Powers and Privileges of the Parliament—The Constitution confers certain powers and privileges on members of the Houses of Parliament. No member of Parliament "shall be liable to any proceedings in any court in respect of anything said or any vote given by him in Parliament or any committee thereof, and no person shall be so liable in respect of the publication by or under the authority of either house of Parliament of any report, paper, votes or proceedings. The powers, privileges and immunities of member of each house of Parliament shall be such as may from time to time be defined by Parliament by laws and until so defined, shall be those of the House of Commons of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, and of its members and committees."

The difference between the House of the People and the Council of States is as follows :—

The difference is not merely in their size. The powers given to them are not the same. The function of both is to legislate but the greater part of this responsibility will be borne by the Lower House. A bill has to be passed by both the Houses before it becomes law. In case of a disagreement between the two Houses, a joint session of the two Houses is summoned to resolve the dead-lock. The opinion of the Lower House will ultimately prevail owing to its numerical majority. But it is to be noted here that the procedure regarding dead-lock relates only to Bills other than money bills, for, as regards *money bills* the provision of the Constitution is that sole power shall belong to the Lower House. Money Bills cannot be introduced in the Council of States. They must, as a rule, originate in the House of the People.

JUDICIARY—The *Supreme Court of India* consists of Chief Justice and not more than ten other judges appointed by the President. Judges hold office till the age of 65.

The Supreme Court decides disputes between the Government of India and any State or States or between two or more States involving any question of law or fact. Civil and Criminal appeals of a certain kind from High Courts will also be heard by it. The Supreme Court is also competent to order the enforcement of Fundamental Rights. It has also Advisory Jurisdiction by which the President can refer to it any question of public importance. The law declared by it is binding on all courts of the country.

COMPTROLLER & AUDITOR-GENERAL—Articles 148 and 151 provide for the appointment of a Comptroller & Auditor-general of India by the President to keep watch on the account of the Union and the States. His duties and powers are prescribed or under law, made by Parliament. His reports submitted to the President and the Governor of States, are laid before each House of Parliament and the Legislatures of States.

STATE GOVERNMENTS—There are now two classes of administrative divisions—(1) States and (2) Territories. The States are Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Maharashtra Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir, Kerala, Madhya Prdaesh, Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. The Territories, all of which are centrally-administered, are as follows—Andaman & Nico-

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bar Islands, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Laccadive, Amindivi and Minicoy Islands, Manipore and Tripura.

States—There is a *Governor* for each State in whom all executive powers are vested. He is appointed by the President and holds office during his pleasure. Any citizen of India who has completed 35 years of age is eligible for the appointment as Governor. Governor holds office for a term of five years unless he resigns earlier. Besides official residence, the Governor draws a salary of Rs. 5,500 per month and other allowances and privileges.

The Governor will be assisted by a *Council of Ministers* with Chief Minister at the head of the Council to aid and advise the Governor. The Chief Minister is appointed by the Governor and the other Ministers are also appointed by him on the advice of the Chief Minister. Ministers hold office during the pleasure of the Governor. The Council of Ministers is collectively responsible to the Legislative Assembly of the State.

Every State has a *legislature*. Some States have two chambers, while others have only one chamber. Where there are two chambers, one is known as the Legislative Council and the other as the Legislative Assembly and where there is only one House, it is known as Legislative Assembly. Those with two Houses are Bombay, Bihar, Madras, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra and West Bengal.

Legislative Assembly of each State is elected by direct election on the basis of adult franchise. The total of the Assembly members shall in no case be more than 500 or less than 60. Its normal life is five years. Some seats may be reserved for Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes. The Governor may also nominate the representatives of Anglo-Indian community.

The total number of members of the *Legislative Council* of a State is not to exceed one-third of the total members in the Legislative Assembly, but in no case shall be less than 40. This is a permanent body ; one-third of its members retire every second year. Half of its members are elected from local bodies, from among the graduates of three years' standing and teachers who have worked at least three years. A third of the members are elected by the Legislative Assembly from among non-members and the rest are nominated by the Governor from among men of eminence in literature, art, science or social service.

States Judiciary—The Constitution envisages a High Court for each State. The High Court consists of a Chief Justice and such other judges as the President may from time to time deem it necessary to appoint. The judges of a High Court are appointed by the President of India in consultation with the Chief Justice of India and the Governor of the State and, in case of an appointment of a Judge other than Chief Justice, the Chief Justice of the High Court concerned. They hold office until they attain the age of 60 years and are removable from office in the same manner as a judge of the Supreme Court.

Territories—Union Territories have no popular administration, and even Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Tripura which had a Legislature and ministry of their own, have none under the new set-up (Reorganisation of States Act, 1956). The Territories are governed

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through an administrator each, with whom some non-official elements are associated. Parliament is the sole legislating authority for these Territories, while additionally the President has power of making regulations in respect of Andamans and Laccadives. Advisory Councils have been set up in Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Manipur with elected members of the Parliament from these areas to advise the Union Home Minister in the matter of legislation to be placed before the Parliament, on the budget to be framed in respect of them.

Relation between Union and the States—Parliament can legislate for the whole or any part of the territory of India and the Legislature of a State for whole or any part of the State. No law, however, made by the Parliament can be considered invalid on the ground of extra-territorial jurisdiction. For the purpose of distributing legislative powers between the Centre and the States, three comprehensive lists have been drawn up. These lists are (1) *Union List*, (2) *Concurrent List*, (3) *State List*.

The Parliament has "executive power" to make laws in regard to the matters mentioned in the first list, *i.e.*, *Union List*. The *Concurrent List* means that matters shared between Union and the States, such as criminal law, civil procedure, preventive detention, marriage and divorce, transfer of property other than agricultural lands, contracts, bankruptcy, etc.

There are 66 items in the "*State List*." Some of them are police, administration of justice, prisons, local government, public health and sanitation, forests, fisheries, etc. The legislature of a State has "exclusive powers" to make laws in matters mentioned in this list.

Jurisdiction over all other matters not mentioned in the Concurrent and State Lists will belong to the Parliament. This means that the Union will acquire *residuary powers*.

As regards *Administrative Relations*, the executive powers of every State shall be so exercised as to ensure compliance with the laws made by the Parliament and any existing laws which apply in that State, and the executive power of the Union shall extend to the giving of such direction to the State as may appear to be necessary for that purpose.

Union executive is empowered to give direction to a State regarding construction and maintenance of the means of communication declared to be of national or military importance. Parliament can declare certain highways or waterways to be national highways or waterways. Union executive can also construct and maintain means of communication required in connection with naval, military and air force works. The President may with the consent of the Government of the State entrust to that Government functions in relation to any matter to which the executive power of the Union exists.

There is provision for the formation of an *Inter-State Council* to investigate and discuss subjects in which States have common interest and inquire into and advise upon disputes which may have arisen between the States.

There are also *Emergency provisions* in case of grave crisis

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created by war or internal disturbances in which President can give direction to the constituent States as to how their authority to be exercised. President can suspend from operation several articles of the Constitution. During such period, Union Parliament has power to legislate with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the State List.

Election Commission—The superintendence, direction and control of elections to Parliament and Legislature of every State and of President and Vice-President including appointment of an Election Tribunal, shall vest in an *Election Commission* to be appointed by the President. The Chief Election Commissioner enjoys conditions of tenure and service similar to those of a judge of the Supreme Court.

There shall be only one general electoral role for every territorial constituency and no person will be ineligible for inclusion in such role on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex or any of them.

There is no property qualifications of the voters. Every person who is a citizen of India and who is not less than twenty one years of age and who is not otherwise disqualified, is entitled to vote at the elections of the House of the People and the Legislative Assemblies of States.

Special provisions for certain classes—Seats shall be reserved in the House of the People for (*a*) Scheduled Castes, (*b*) Scheduled Tribes.

If Anglo-Indian community is not adequately represented in the House of People, President may nominate not more than two members of that community.

Seats shall be reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Legislative Assemblies of the States. Anglo-Indians are to be nominated by the Governor or Rajpramukh of a State, if not adequately represented.

The reservation of seats and special representation shall cease after ten years from the commencement of this Constitution.

Financial and other provisions—There is a provision in the Constitution for setting up of a *Finance Commission* to make recommendations to the President as to the distribution between the Centre and the Units of the net proceeds of certain taxes (like the income-tax, excise duties, some export duties, etc.,) and the allocation between the States of such proceeds.

The Central and State Governments are required to set up respectively the *Consolidated Fund of India* and the *Consolidated Fund of the States* respectively. All revenues received by the Government of India and the Government of a State are to be credited into their respective consolidated funds. No money is to be appropriated from the Consolidated Fund of India or of a State except in accordance with an Appropriation Act passed by Parliament or the Legislature of the State concerned. Provision has also been made for the establishment of a *Contingency Fund* of India and a Contingency Fund for each State to meet unforeseen expenditure, pending proper authorisation by the appropriate legislature.

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Authority of Audit—As for auditing the funds, the Constitution provides for the appointment of a *Comptroller and Auditor-General of India* by the President to keep watch on the finances and accounts of the Union. It is his responsibility to see that the expenses voted by the Parliament or the legislature of a State and laid down in the Appropriation Fund are not exceeded or varied.

Trade and Commerce—The Constitution provides the broad principles of freedom of trade, commerce and intercourse throughout the territory of India. Union Parliament and the State Legislatures are, however, authorised to prescribe limitations when there is scarcity of any particular commodity or for any other consideration of national or public interest. But no Legislature, whether Parliament or a State Legislature, has power to make a law giving any preference to one State over another or discriminating between different States in respect of items relating to trade and commerce in the lists of the 7th Schedule. Only certain Part B States are exempted from this provision for a period of ten years.

Official Language—Hindi in Devnagri script shall be the official language of the Union and the form of numerals for official use shall be the international form of Indian numerals. The English language shall continue for all official purposes of the Union for a period of 15 years from the commencement of the Constitution. The President is authorised to constitute, after the expiration of five years from the commencement of the Constitution and thereafter at the expiration of ten years from such commencement, a special commission to examine the growth and development of Hindi and make recommendations as to its progressive use for all or any of the official purposes of the Union with a view to replacing English completely at the end of the stipulated period.

Regional Languages—The Constitution recognised the use of Assamese, Bengali, Gujerati, Hindi, Karnataka, Kashmiri, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu, any one or more of which may be used as the regional languages of the Union.

AMENDMENTS TO THE INDIAN CONSTITUTION

Amendment of the Constitution—Article 368 provides for the amendment of the Constitution. The Constitution shall stand amended when the President gives assent to any bill for the purpose after it is passed in each House of Parliament by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the memebrs of the House present and voting The only provision for the amendment of which ratification by the legislatures of not less than one-half of the States has also been prescribed, relates to the Supreme Court and High Courts, the distribution of legislative powers between the Centre and the States, the representation of the States in Parliament and the procedure for amendment of the Constitution.

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Since the inauguration of the Constitution on January 26, 1950, the following amending enactments have been passed—

1. **Constitution (First Amendment) Act, 1951**—The first amendment to the Indian Constitution was made by the Constitution (First Amendment) Act, 1951. By this, besides making minor changes in Articles 15, 19, 85, 87, 174, 176, 341, 342, 372, and 375, it added two new Articles 31A and 31B and a 9th Schedule.

By an amendment to clause (2) of Article 19, it has permitted reasonable restrictions to be imposed by law on the exercise of the right of freedom of speech and expression in the interest of friendly relations with foreign States or public order or on the ground of incitement of an offence. An amendment of clause (6) of Article 19 has, however, removed from the scope of judicial review, or grounds of reasonableness, restrictions imposed on the right of citizens to carry on any trade, business, industry or service where such restrictions have been imposed with a view to enabling the State to undertake any scheme of nationalisation.

To Article 15, sub-clause (4) was inserted stating that the State can make special provision for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens or for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes.

Two new Articles, 31-A and 31-B, were inserted. Article 31-A provides that no law providing for the acquisition by the State of any estate or of any rights therein or for the extinguishment or modification of any such rights shall be deemed to be void on the ground that it is inconsistent with, or takes away or abridges any of the rights conferred by any provisions of this Part (III).

To preserve the Zamindary Abolition Acts by various States in India, Article 31-B provides that none of the Acts and Regulations specified in the Ninth Schedule nor any of the provisions thereof shall be deemed to be void, or even to have become void, on the ground that such Act, Regulation or provision is inconsistent with, or takes away or abridges any of the rights conferred by, any provisions of Part III, and notwithstanding any judgment, decree or order of any court or tribunal to the contrary, each of the said Acts and Regulations shall continue in force.

2. **Constitution (Second Amendment) Act, 1952** :—It sought to amend Article 81 with a view to readjusting the scale of representation in the House of the People necessitated by the completion of 1951 census.

Art. 81 relates to the composition of the House of the People. Sub-Clause (b) states that there shall be not less than one member for every 750,000 of the population and not more than one member for every 500,000 of the population. But on account of increase in the number of population in the census of 1951, some adjustment in the ratio of representation was necessary. Accordingly, the words—"not less than one member for every 750,000 of the population and"—were omitted. The result is that the upper limit of representation is abolished and there shall be not more than one member for every 500,000 of the population.

3. **Constitution (Third Amendment) Act, 1954** :—Under Article

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369, Parliament had power to legislate in respect of certain essential commodities upto January 1955. As it was considered essential that Centre's control over some of these commodities should continue, the Constitution (Third Amendment) Act, 1953 amplified the scope of entry 33 of List III in the Seventh Schedule. It included four classes of commodities, namely, foodstuffs, cattle fodder, raw cotton and raw jute. Imported goods of the type produced by the centralised industries were also placed in that entry. This will enable the Centre to exercise full control over the development of such industries.

4. **Constitution (Fourth Amendment) Act, 1955.**—This Legislation was intended to meet objections raised by courts on questions relating to the acquisition of private property. This Fourth Amendment amended Articles 31, 31A, 305 and added few more entries to the Ninth Schedule. The amendment to Article 31 (2) that the State can compulsorily acquire private property for a public purpose and that the scale of compensation prescribed by the authorising legislation should not be called in question in a Court of Law. Article 31A was amended so as to exclude temporary taking over of a property by the State either in public interest or to secure its better management from the compensation clause. The amendment to Article 305 was in the nature of a saving clause for laws providing for State monopolies. Seven new entries were also added to the Ninth Schedule.

5. **Constitution (Fifth Amendment) Act, 1955** :—Under the proviso to Article 3 of the Constitution, it was provided that any bill for the purpose of forming a new State or altering the area, boundaries or name of any State could not be introduced in Parliament unless the views of the Legislatures of the States concerned had been ascertained by the President. This amendment has amended the said proviso so as to authorise the President to prescribe a time limit for the State legislatures to communicate their views in the matter and to enable the Bill to be introduced after the expiry of the time limit so prescribed.

6. **Constitution (Sixth Amendment) Act, 1956**—The sixth amendment came into force on and from 11th September, 1956. The sixth amendment amends the Seventh Schedule by providing a new entry 92A (after entry 92) in the Union List. The entry 92A reads as follows : "Taxes on the sale or purchase of goods other than newspapers, where such sale or purchase takes place in the course of inter-State trade or commerce."

It also amends entry 54 of the State List as follows : "54. Taxes on the sale or purchase of goods other than newspapers, subject to the provisions of entry 92A of List I."

It also amends Article 286 of the Constitution. The *Explanation* in clause (1) has been omitted. For clause (2) and (3) the following clauses have been substituted :

"(2) Parliament may by law formulate principles for determining when a sale or purchase of goods takes place in any of the ways mentioned in clause (1).

(3) Any law of a State, in so far as it imposes, or authorises

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the imposition of a tax on the sale or purchase of goods declared by Parliament by law to be of special importance in inter-State trade or commerce, be subject to such restrictions and conditions in regard to the system of levy, rates and other incidents of the tax as Parliament may by law specify."

By virtue of this amendment, the Central Government shall levy and collect taxes on the sale or purchase of goods other than newspapers, where such sale or purchase takes place in the course of inter-State trade or commerce. Parliament may by law formulate principles for determining when a sale or purchase of goods takes place in the course of inter-State trade or commerce. The proceeds of such taxes shall be distributed among the States in whose territories the tax will be levied and collected.

7. **Constitution (Seventh Amendment) Act, 1956**—This Act came into force from 1st November, 1956. It was passed for the reorganisation of the States. It involved not only the establishment of new States and alterations in State boundaries but also the abolition of the three categories of the States and the classification of certain areas as Union Territories. This led to the amendment of Article I and the First Schedule of the Constitution. Among the other important Articles which were affected by this amendment were Article 80 (Composition of the Council of States) along with the Fourth Schedule dealing with the allocation of seats in the Council of States 1 Articles 81 and 82 which have been revised and simplified ; (It is now provided that each state shall be allotted seats in the House of the People in such a way that the ratio between the number of such seats and the population of the State is, so far as practicable, the same for all the States. It has also been laid down that the ratio between the population of each constituency and the number of seats allotted to it in a State should, as far as possible, be uniform throughout the State). Article 131 on the original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court; Article 168 providing for bicameral legislatures in certain States ; and Articles 216, 217, 220, 222, 224 dealing with the High Courts. Two new Articles 350 A and 350 B were added with a view to implementing the recommendations of the States Reorganisation Commission regarding Constitutional safeguards for linguistic minorities.

8. **The Constitution (Eighth Amendment) Act, 1959**—amends Article 334 so as to extend the special provision relating to reservations of seats for the Schedule Castes and Scheduled Tribes and representations of Anglo-Indians by nomination in the House of the People and Legislative Assemblies of States, for a further period of ten years from January 26, 1960.

SCHEDULE

First Schedule (Articles 1 and 4)—*1. States*—Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Maharashtra Gujarat, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Jammu & Kashmri.

2. Union Territorries—Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur, Tri-

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pura, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands.

Second Schedule (*Part A*)—Provisions as to the President and the Governors of States.

—(*Part B*)—Omitted by the Constitution (Seventh Amendment) Act, 1956.

—(*Part C*)—Provisions as to the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of the House of the People and the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Council of States and the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of the Legislative Assembly and the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Legislative Council of a State.

—(*Part D*)—Provisions as to the Judges of the Supreme Court and of the High Court.

—(*Part E*)—Provisions as to the Comptroller and Auditor-General of India.

Third Schedule—Forms of Oaths or Affirmations.

Fourth Schedule—Allocation of Seats in the Council of States—Andhra Pradesh 18, Assam 7, Bihar 22, Bombay 27, Kerala 9, Madhaya Pradesh 16, Madras 17, Mysore 12, Orissa 10, Punjab 11, Rajasthan 10, West Bengal 16, Jammu & Kashmir 4, Delhi 3, Himachal Pradesh 2, Manipur 1, Tripura 1=220.

Fifth Schedule—Provisions as to the administration and control of Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes.

Sixth Schedule—Provisions as to the administration of Tribal areas in Assam.

Seventh Schedule—List 1—Union List ; List II.—State List ; List III —Concurrent List.

Eighth Schedule—Languages : Assamese, Bengali, Gujrati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telegu, Urdu.

Ninth Schedule—(Article 31B)—Bihar Land Reforms Act 1950, Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Acts 1948.
Bombay Maleki Tenure Abolition Act 1949, etc. etc.

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INDIAN CITIZENSHIP

At present citizenship law is determined by the Indian Citizenship Act 51 of 1955. The Act provides five methods for the acquisition of Indian citizenship. These are : by birth, by descent, by registration, by naturalisation and by incorporation of territory. The Act also provides for the termination of citizenship.

By Birth : Every person born in India on or after the 26th January, 1950, shall be a citizen of India by birth. Children born in India to foreign diplomats and enemy aliens, however, shall not acquire Indian citizenship by birth.

By Descent : A person born outside India on or after the 26th January, 1950, shall be a citizen of India by descent if his father is a citizen of India at the time of his birth. But if the father of such a person was a citizen of India by descent only, that person shall not be a citizen of India by descent, unless his father is registered at an Indian consulate within one year of its occurrence, or, his father is, at the time of his birth, in service under a Government of India.

By Registration : Citizenship can be acquired by registration on application to the Government of India by any person who is not already such citizen by virtue of the Constitution or by virtue of any other provisions of this Act. He must belong to any of the following categories :—(a) persons of Indian origin who are ordinarily residents in India and have been so residents for six months immediately before making an application for registration ; (b) persons of Indian origin who are ordinarily residents in any country or place outside undivided India ; (c) women who are, or have been, married to citizens of India ; (d) minor children of persons who are citizens of India ; and (e) persons of full age and capacity who are citizens of a Commonwealth country.

Commonwealth countries include United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Union of South Africa, Pakistan, Ceylon and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The Republic of Ireland is also placed on the same footing. For the purpose of registration, a person shall be deemed to be Indian origin if he, or either of his parents, or any of his grand-parents, was born in undivided India. A person of full age must take an oath of allegiance before he is registered as a citizen of India.

By Naturalisation—A person of full age and capacity not being a citizen of a Commonwealth country, may be naturalised as an Indian citizen provided he makes an application in the prescribed manner to that effect. The qualifications for naturalisation of a person who is not a citizen of a country in the Commonwealth are :—

(a) that he is not a subject or citizen of any country where citizens of India are prevented by law or practice of that country from becoming subjects or citizens of that country by naturalisation;

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(b) that if he is a citizen of any country, he has renounced the citizenship of that country in accordance with the law therein in force in that behalf and has notified such renunciation to the Central Government ;

(c) that he has either resided in India or been in the service of a Government in India or partly the one and partly the other, throughout the period of twelve months immediately preceding the date of the application ;

(d) that during the seven years immediately preceding the said period of twelve months, he has either resided in India or been in the service of a Government in India or partly the one and partly the other, for periods amounting in the aggregate to not less than four years;

(e) that he is of good character ;

(f) that he has an adequate knowledge of a language specified in the Eighth Schedule to the Constitution; and

(g) that in the event of a certificate of naturalisation being granted to him, he intends to reside in India or to enter into or continue in service under a Government in India or under an international organisation of which India is a member or under a society, company or body of persons established in India.

Provided that, if in the opinion of the Central Government, the applicant is a person who has rendered distinguished service to the cause of science, philosophy, art, literature, world peace or human progress generally, it may waive all or any of the conditions specified above.

By Incorporation of Territory—If any territory becomes a part of India, the Central Government may specify the persons who shall be citizens of India by reason of their connection with that territory ; and those persons shall be citizens of India as from the date to be specified in the order.

TERMINATION OF CITIZENSHIP—Indian citizenship can be terminated by renunciation or termination or deprivation. Any citizen of India of full age and capacity can terminate his Indian citizenship by making a declaration to that effect, except during a time of war. Any citizen of India who has been naturalised in a foreign country shall cease to be an Indian citizen. The Government of India can also deprive a naturalised citizen of his citizenship on ground of disloyalty to the State of India or continued absence from the country for a period of seven years.

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OUR NATIONAL EMBLEMS & AWARDS

NATIONAL FLAG

The *first national flag* in India was hoisted on August 7, 1906 in the Parsee Bagan Square, Calcutta. The flag was composed of horizontal stripes of red, yellow and green.

The *second* flag was hoisted by Madame Cama and her band of exiled revolutionaries in Paris in 1907. It was similar to the first flag with slight modifications.

The *third flag* was hoisted during Home Rule Movement in 1917 by Dr. Annie Besant and Tilak. This flag had five red and four green horizontal stripes and in the left hand top corner (the pole end) was the Union Jack occupying one-fourth of the space and seven stars in the centre. There was also a crescent and a star in one corner.

The *Tricolour* was first born at A.I.C.C. meeting at Bezwada in 1921 when a flag was shown by an Andhra youth and improved by Mahatma Gandhi with the addition of a white stripe and charka. Though not officially accepted by the Congress, it was hoisted on all Congress occasions. In 1931, when A.I.C.C. met at Karachi, a resolution was passed stressing the need for a national flag. In the same year, a resolution was passed adopting a tricolour flag as our National Emblem. It had three colours : saffron for courage and sacrifice, white for truth and peace, green for faith and chivalry. It also carried a charka in blue on white band. The size was three lengths by two breadths. On July 22, 1947 with the attainment of independence, the Constituent Assembly adopted it as free India's National Flag. The colours and their significance remain the same. The *Dharma Chakra* of Emperor Asoka was adopted instead of Charka.

The *National Flag of India* consists of a horizontal tricolour in the saffron (*Kesari*) at the top, white in the middle and dark green at the bottom, all stripes being equal in breadth. The ratio of the width of the flag to its length is two to three. The emblem of the flag is an exact reproduction of the wheel on the capital of the Asoka pillar at Saranath, superimposed on the central band and is as broad as the white stripe. The colour of the emblem is dark blue and the wheel has 24 spokes. The National Flag was adopted by the Constituent Assembly on July 22, 1947 and presented to the nation at the session of the Assembly on August 14, 1947.

Use of National Flag—

NATIONAL FLAG CODE

A Flag Code to ensure the correct display of the National Flag has been issued by the Government of India on the 25th July, 1960

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The rules, which are not applicable to defence installations and personnel, say that, wherever the flag is flown, it should occupy the position of honour and be distinctly placed. In no case will the flag be dipped in salute to any person or thing. Not will any other flag or bunting be placed higher or above it.

Only such important public buildings as High Courts, Secretariats, Commissioners' Offices, Collectorates, Jails and offices of the District Boards, Municipalities and Zilla Parishads will normally fly the flag. And it will be displayed on all days, including Sundays and holidays from sunrise to sunset irrespective of weather conditions. The flag may also be flown on such buildings at night but this should be only on very special occasions.

Special Occasions—On special occasions like the Republic Day and the National Week following it, the Independence Day and Mahatma Gandhi's birthday or any other particular day of national rejoicing, the display of the flag will be unrestricted.

The flag is to fly on the permanent residence at headquarters of the Vice-President, Rulers of former Indian States, and Heads of Missions abroad in countries where it is the custom for diplomatic and consular representatives to fly their national flag over the official residences or offices.

The President has a special standard of his own and will continue to fly the same. The Governors, the Sadar-Riyasat of Jammu and Kashmir and Lieutenant-Governors have also their own special standards and will continue to fly them within their States. When outside their States, they may fly the National Flag, but not their special standards, either at their own or other private residences wherever they may stay.

In frontier areas, the flag may be flown on the border customs posts, check-posts, outposts, and at other special places where the flying of the flag has special sifinificance. In addition, it may be flown on the camp sites of border patrol.

Flag on Motor Cars—The privilege of flying the flag on motor cars will be limited to the Vice-President, Governors, the Sadar-Riyasat of Jammu and Kashmir and Lieutenant-Governors when outside their States, Rulers of former Indian States, and Heads of Indian Mission abroad in countries to which they are accredited. The Ministers may fly the National Flag on their cars on occasions of national importance and also while on tour.

The President flies his own special standard on his car. If the Prime Minister travels in a car accompanned by a Governor, the Sadar-i-Riyasat of Jammu and Kashmir or a Lieutenant-Governor, the National Flag alone should be flown on the car.—

The flag will not be used in any form of advertisement nor as an advertising sign fastened to the pole from which the flag is flown. Similarly, it will not be used as a receptacle for receiving, delivering, holding or carrying anything. The use of the National Flag or any colourable imitation thereof for the purpose of any trade, business, calling or profession, or in the title of any patent, or in any trade mark or design without the prior permission of the Central Government is an offence.

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When the flag is in a damaged or soiled condition it must not be cast aside or disrespectfully disposed of. It should be destroyed as a whole in private, preferably by burning or by any other method consistent with the dignity of the flag.

The National Flag will not be flown half-mast except when specially directed by Government. By half-mast is meant hauling down the flag to one-half the distance between the top and the guy-line and in the absence of the guy-line, half of the staff.

NATIONAL EMBLEM

The National Emblem of India is an adaptation from Saranath Lion Capital of Asoka as is preserved in the Saranath museum. In the original there are four lions, standing back to back, mounted on an abacus with a frieze carrying sculptures in high relief of an elephant, a galloping horse, a bull, and a lion separated by intervening wheels (*Chakras*) over a bell-shaped lotus. The capital was crowned by the Wheel of Law (*Dharma Chakra*). In the national emblem adopted by the Government of India, only three lions are visible, fourth being hidden from view. The wheel (*Chakra*) appears in relief in the centre of the abacus with a bull on the right and a horse on the left and the outlines of the other wheels (*Chakras*) on the extreme right and left. The bell-shaped lotus has been omitted.

The words *Satyameva Jayate* meaning 'truth alone triumphs', are inscribed in Devnagri script below the emblem. The lion capital was adopted as National Emblem on January 26, 1950.

The fact that the original lion capital designed between 242—232 B.C. was created by Emperor Asoka to hallow the spot where the Buddha first initiated his disciples in the eight-fold path of salvation. invests the Emblem with historical and spiritual significance. Carved out of a single block of sandstone, the original capital was surmounted by a wheel (Chakra).

NATIONAL SONGS

The Constituent Assembly of India on the 24th January, 1950 adopted Rabindranath Tagore's song *Jana-gana-mana* as the National Anthem of India. It was concurrently decided that Bankim Chandra Chatterjee's *Bande Mataram* shall have equal status.

The Orchestral, Choral and Military Band versions of the National Anthem *Jana Gana Mana* have been standardised. The Government of India have emphasised that the general public should use the authorised versions of the Anthem, both on public and private occasions.

NATIONAL CALENDAR

A uniform National Calendar has been adopted by the Govern- of India with effect from March 22, 1957 along with the Gregorian Calendar for the following official purposes—(1) the Gazettee of India (2) News broadcasts by A.I.R. (3) Calendars issued by the Govern-

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ment of India (4) Communications by the Government of India and addressed to members of the public.

AWARDS & DISTINCTIONS & TITLES

Bharat Ratna—The award is made for exceptional work for the advancement of art, literature and science and in recognition of public service of the highest order. The decoration takes the form of a *peepl leaf* 2 $\frac{5}{16}$ inches long, 1$\frac{1}{8}$ inches in width and $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick. It is of toned bronze. On the obverse side is embossed a replica of the sun, below which the words *Bharat Ratna* are embossed in Hindi. On the reverse are the State emblem and the motto, also in Hindi. The Emblem, the sun and the rim, are of platinum.

Padma Vibhusan—The award is made for exceptional and distinguished service in any field, including service rendered by Government servants.

Padma Bhusan—The award is made for distinguished service of a high order in any field, including service rendered by Government servants.

Padma Shri—The award is made for distinguished service in any field, including service rendered by Government servants.

President's Police & Fire Service Medal, Police Medal.

Krishi Pandits—The title 'Krishi Pandit' is given annually by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research to farmers who have made notable contribution for the cause of Indian agriculture.

Gopal Ratna—This title had been instituted in 1956 by the Government of India and is awarded to the owners of the highest milk-yielding cows and buffaloes of certain breeds in all-India milk-yield competition. Owners of each breed of cattle, besides title of Gopal Ratna, get cash prizes of Rs. 2,000 each.

HONOUR AND AWARDS FOR ARMED FORCES

Gallantry in the Face of the Enemy—1. *Param Vir Chakra* is the highest decoration for valour which is awarded for " most conspicuous bravery or some daring or pre-eminent act of valour or self-sacrifice *in the presence of the enemy*, whether on land, at sea, or in the air. This decoration is made of bronze and is circular in shape. It has, on the obverse, four replicas of 'India's Vajra' embossed round the State emblem in the centre. On the reverse, the words "Param Vir Chakra" are embossed both in Hindi and English, with lotus flowers in the middle. The decoration is worn on the left crest with a plain purple coloured riband, an inch and quarter in width.

2. *Mahavir Chakra* is the second highest decoration and is awarded for acts of conspicuous gallantry in the presence of the enemy, whether on land, at sea, or in the air. It is made of standard silver and is circular in shape.

3. *Vir Chakra* is third in the order of awards given for acts of gallantry in the presence of the enemy, whether on land, at sea or in the air. The decoration is made of standard silver and is circular in shape.

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A recipient of any of these decorations is entitled to special pension.

For gallantry other than in the Face of the Enemy—1. *Ashoka Chakra Class I*—This medal is awarded for the most conspicuous bravery or some daring or pre-eminent act of valour or self-sacrifice on land, at sea or in the air. The Chakra is made of gilt gold and is circular in shape.

2. *Ashok Chakra, Class II*—is awarded for conspicuous gallantry. It is made of standard silver and is circular in shape.

3. *Ashoka Chakra, Class III*—is awarded for an act of gallantry. It is exactly like two Ashoka Chakras, except that it is made of bronze.

Officers and all other ranks of the Army, Navy and Air Force, the Reserve Forces, the Territorial Army, the Militia and any other lawfully constituted forces, as also members of the Nursing services of the Armed Forces and Civilian citizens of either sex in all walks of life are eligible for the award of Asoka Chakra, classes 1, 2, 3.

4. *Mentioned in Despatches*—In recognition of distinguished and meritorious service in operational areas and acts of gallantry of an order not sufficiently high to warrant the grant of gallantry awards, a system of Mentioned in Despatches was instituted with effect from August 15, 1947. Those who are 'mentioned in despatches' are entitled to have an emblem—a miniature leaf.

Campaign Medals—1. *General Service Medal*—awarded for services rendered under active service conditions after August 15, 1947. An individual qualifying for it for the first time is awarded the medal together with a clasp indicating the particular operation for which award has been made.

2. *Clasp*—So far two clasps have been instituted. The *Jammu and Kashmir Clasp* was awarded for operations in Jammu & Kashmir between October 1947 and January 1949.

3. The *Overseas Clasp* was intended for service overseas. The first issue has been made to those service personnel who saw operational service in Korea between 1950-53.

Medals for Meritorious Service and Long Service and Good Conduct—(1) There are two classes of medals—*Meritorious Service Medal* is awarded on a Service-wise allotment of vacancies at the rate of one per 900 men of the authorised strength. (2) Long Service Medal and good conduct medal is awarded on a Service-wise allotment of vacancies at the rate of two per 900 men.

Decorations to Territorial Army Personnel—1. *Territorial Army Decoration* is awarded to Commissioned Officers of the Territorial Army with 20 years' meritorious service.

2. *Territorial Army Medal* is awarded to Junior Commissioned Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers and the men of the Territorial Army who have completed 12 years' efficient service.

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RANK & PRECEDENCE OF PERSONS

1. President.
2. Vice-President.
3. Prime Minister.
4. Governors and Sadar-i-Riyasat, Jammu & Kashmir, within their respective charges.
5. Ex-Presidents and ex-Governors General.
6. Lieutenant Governors within their respective charges.
7. Chief Justice. Speaker of the Lok Sabha.
8. Cabinet Ministers of the Union.
9. Holders of Bharat Ratna Decorations.
10. Ambassadors Extraordinary & Plenipotentiary accredited to India.

High Commissioners of Commonwealth Governments in India.

11. Rulers of Indian States with a salute of 17 guns and above within their States.
12. Governors and Sadar-i-Riyasat, Jammu & Kashmir, outside their respective charges.
13. Lieutenant Governors outside their respective charges.
14. Rulers of Indian States with a salute of 17 guns and above outside their States.
15. Chief Ministers of States.
16. Ministers of the Union.

Members of the Planning Commission.

17. Rulers of Indian States with a salute of 15 guns or 13 guns.
18. Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary accredited to India.
19. Judges of the Supreme Court.
20. Visiting Class I Ambassadors of India.

Foreign Ambassadors visiting India.

Visiting High Commissioners of India and High Commissioners of other Commonwealth countries visiting India.

21. Charges d' Affaires and acting High Commissioners *a pied* and *ad interim*.
22. Chiefs of Staff and Commanders-in-chief holding the rank of full General or equivalent rank.
23. Chief Justices of High Courts.

Chairmen of Legislative Councils in States.

Speakers of Legislative Assemblies in States.

24. Cabinet Ministers in States. Ministers of States.

Deputy Ministers of the Union, Attorney-General.

Comptroller and Auditor-General.

Deputy Chairman of the Rajya Sabha.

Deputy Speaker of the Lok Sabha.

25. Chiefs of Staff holding the rank of Lieutenant-General or equivalent rank.
26. Rulers of Indian States with a salute of 11 guns or 9 guns.
27. Chairman, Union Public Service Commission.

Chief Election Commissioner.

Ministers of State in States.

28. Puisne Judges of High Courts.

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Rank & Precedence of Persons—(*Contd.*)

29. Deputy Ministers of States.

Deputy Chairmen and Deputy Speakers of State Legislatures.

Chief Commissioners of Union territories within their respective charges.

30. Members of Parliament.

31. Officers of the rank of full General or equivalent rank.

Secretary to the President.

Secretaries to the Government of India and Principal Private Secretary to the Prime Minister.

Visiting Class II and Class III Ambassadors of India.

Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

Officiating Chief of Staff holding the rank of Major-General or equivalent rank.

Visiting Ministers Plenipotentiary of India and Foreign Ministers Plenipotentiary visiting India.

Chairman of the Railway Board.

Financial Commissioner for Railways.

Solicitor-General.

Political Officer in Sikkim.

Members of the Railway Board.

32. Ministers of Foreign and Commonwealth Missions other than Ministers Plenipotentiary.

Officers of the rank of Lieutenant-General or equivalent rank.

33. Additional Secretaries to the Government of India.

Chairman, Tariff Commission.

Chairman, Central Water and Power Commission.

Vice-Chairman of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research.

Financial Adviser, Ministry of Finance (Defence).

*P.S.Os. of the Armed Forces of the rank of Major-General or equivalent rank.

Chairman, Central Board of Revenue.

34. Chairman of the Public Service Commission of a State.

Chief Secretaries to the States.

Financial Commissioners.

Members of the Union Public Service Commission.

Flag Officer Commanding, Indian Fleet.

Members of a Board of Revenue.

35. Director-General, Health Services.

Director-General, Posts and Telegraphs.

Director, Intelligence Bureau.

General Managers of Railways.

Establishment Officer to the Government of India.

Joint Secretaries to the Government of India (including Jt. Secretary to the Cabinet).

Visiting Class IV Ambassadors of India.

Officers of the rank of Major-General or equivalent rank.

Surveyor-General.

Members of the Tariff Commission.

Inspectors-General of Police in States.

Commissioners of Divisions.

Director-General of Civil Aviation.

Director-General of Supplies and Disposals.

Director-General of Ordnance Factories.

Indian Navy Commodores-in charge, Naval Ports or Areas.

Commanders of Indian Air Force Commands of the rank of Air Commodore.

*** Should a P.S.O. hold the rank of Lieutenant-General, his seniority in the Table of Precedence will continue to remain the same as laid down for Officers of the rank of Lieutenant-General or equivalent rank in Article 32 of the Table.**

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Rank & Precedence of Persons—(*Concld.*)

Chief Commissioners of Union Territories outside their respective charges.

Director-General, All India Radio.

Military Secretary to the President.

Councillors of foreign and Commonwealth Missions in India.

Deputy Comptroller and Auditor-General.

INDIAN RAILWAYS

RAILWAYS IN INDIA—India has an extensive railway network, reaching all major cities. With 35,081 route mileage, the system is the largest in Asia and the fourth largest in the world. Most of the railways are owned and operated by the Central Government. Those which are still privately owned are narrow-gauge feeder lines and subject to Government regulation, and are usually dependent upon Government assistance.

Indian railway system is not only the largest in Asia but also the single biggest nationalised undertaking in the country. In inter-regional traffic, 80 per cent of the goods and 70 per cent of the passenger traffic are carried by rail. The capital-at-charge in 1958-59 was Rs. 1,363 crores and gross earnings Rs. 392 crores. Daily 7500 passenger and goods trains crisscross the 12 million sq. miles of of the Indian territory on which are spotted more than 35,000 route miles of rails. Each single day Railways of India carry on an average of four million passengers equivalent to 1 p.c. of the country's population. Freight trains carry on average of 370,000 tons of goods daily.

BEGINNING OF RAILAYS IN INDIA—The regular railway projects in India date from 1844. The first line opened was a small section of 22 miles by the G.I.P. Railway between Bombay and Kalyan on April 16, 1853. The E. I. Railway line between Calcutta and Pandooa was the second to follow in August 1854 and Madras had the line upto Arkonam, opened in July 1856.

Terms for Opening Railways—In the early stage (between 1844 and 1868) the construction of railways in India was entrusted to British Companies under State guarantee of a minimum return of 4½ p.c. to 5 p.c. on the capital invested. Government provided the land free of cost but retained the right to purchase the lines after 25 or 50 years on certain terms.

This policy, however, entailed heavy loss to the State, amounting, by 1869, to about 1.7 crores and after an unsuccessful attempt to enlist the co-operation of companies without any guarantee of return, Government adopted the policy of direct ownership, construction and management by the State. Between 1869 and 1879 about 2,175 miles of lines were so constructed.

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The policy of direct State construction, however, did not bear fruit as expected, specially because the exigencies of time necessitated the diversion of capital resources of the State to other directions and political and strategic considerations had led to the spending of large sums on unproductive lines. But the Famine Commission appointed in 1878 strongly urged the early extension of the railway network. Company construction was thereafter revived, and even for State-owned lines management by companies was favoured.

In dealing with the guaranteed companies, the Government exercised as far as found desirable their rights to terminate the contracts as and when opportunities arose in subsequent years : the method of making use of this right and the manner of continuing management of the railways after State acquisition having differed in different cases.

New Era Begins—With the beginning of the 20th century a new era began. Traffic had grown enormously and the railways had ceased to be a burden on public exchequer. In 1901, Mr. Robertson, a Special Commissioner appointed to enquire into the working of the railways, advocated the discontinuance of the dual system of State and Company management and advised the leasing out of all lines to Companies, with or without guarantee. Public opinion in India had, however, ceased to remain inarticulate and strong feelings were entertained against management by English Companies, which often acted against the best interests of the people and stood in the way of Indianisation and advancement of Indian trade and industry. The policy, however, continued upto 1920-21.

In 1921 a Railway Enquiry Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir William Acworth examined critically the question of State *vs.* Company management and advocated State management.

In 1923 the Indian Legislative Assembly adopted a resolution advocating State management only and it was decided to eliminate the system of management by Board of Directors in London. Accordingly, the East Indian Railway was taken over under direct State management in January 1925 and the G. I. P. Railway in July next year and since then all company-managed lines have been taken over. After independence in 1947, the railway system has been nationalised. It is now entirely managed by the State.

CO-ORDINATION OF TRANSPORT SERVICES—In order to ensure a well-planned development of transport and co-ordination between various modes of transport on the one hand and the Central and State Transport policies on the other, Government of India have decided to set up three new transport bodies. They are *Transport Development Council, Road and Inland Water Transport Advisory Committee* and the *Central Transport Co-ordination Committee.* These bodies have replaced Transport Advisory Council constituted in 1935, Central Board of Transport and the Standing Committee of the Central Board of Transport.

Transport Development Council is a high level body to advise the Government of India on all matters of policy relating to roads, road

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transport as well as inland water transport. The Council will also advise on problems relating to co-ordination between different forms of transport that may be referred to it by the Government of India.

Road & Inland Water Transport—A Committee will be set up to discuss problems relating to roads, road transport and to make recommendations to the Transport Development Council for final decisions.

Central Transport Co-odination Committee—is constituted in place of the Standing Committee of the Central Board of Transport and will deal with the day to day transport problems, confronting the different ministries of the Government of India.

ADMINISTRATION OF RAILWAYS—The Railways are under the direct charge of the Minister of Railways who is responsible for the proper management and running the system throughout the country. The Minister is assisted by two Deputy Ministers and a board of management called the Railway Board with a Chairman who is *ex-officio* Secretary-General to the Railway Ministry, the Financial Commissioner and three Members, each in charge of Staff, Transportation and Engineering who are of the status of the Secretaries to the Railway Ministry. The Railway Board is the supreme authority in regard to the day to day administration of the railways. The Board enunciates policies and issues instructions for the execution of the same.

The *Financial Commissioner* looks after the financial side of the business. There are, in addition, certain Additional members to assist the Board in carrying out the programmes in connection with (1) Works, (2) Mechanical, (3) Commercial, (4) Financial and (5) Staff Matters.

Divisional System—In order to provide a unified control of operation and other allied railway activities over a longer area than that of an average district and to vest the responsibility for co-ordinating the working of different departments in the area, Divisional System has been introduced in India Railways. The *Central Railway* is divided into seven Divisions with headquarters at Secunderabad, Bombay, Bhusaval, Nagpur, Sholapur, Jabalpur and Jhansi. *Southern Railway* is divided into eight divisions :—Bezawada, Hubli, Guntakal, Olavakkot, Madras, Madurai, Mysore and Tiruchirapalli. *Western Railway* is divided into eight divisions with headquarters at Bombay, Baroda, Kotah, Jaipur, Ajmer, Rajkot, Bhavnagar and Ratlam. Eastern Railway is divided into four full-fledged Divisions, viz., Howrah, Sealdah, Asansol and Dinapore and the Dhanbad Transportation Division.

Each Division is under a Divisional Superintendent who functions in his sphere more or less as the General Manager does for the entire Zonal railway. He is, however, under the control of the General Manager. Specialised departments like stores and workshops, are excluded from the Divisional Scheme. These are continued to be controlled by headquarters direct as hitherto.

RAILWAY FINANCE—In 1925, the railway finance was separated from the general finance with the object of relieving the

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the general budget from violent fluctuations, thus enabling railways to carry on a continuous policy. Under the Convention, railways contributed to the general revenues according to a fixed formula. These arrangements were subject to periodic revision. The convention was further reviewed in 1949 and in 1954 when it was settled—

(a) The railways should pay a guaranteed dividend of four per cent on the capital at charge at the end of each penultimate year. The revised Financial Convention which became applicable after 1955-56, prescribes the same rate of payment except that on new lines a moratorium is to be granted during construction and for five years to follow.

FARE AND FREIGHT—

Class of accomodation	*Pies per mile per passenger*		
	1-150 miles	151-300 miles	300 miles and over
Air Conditioned ..	34	34	32
First ..	18	16	15
Second (*Mail/Express*) ..	11	10½	9½
Second (*ordinary*) ..	9½	9	8½
Third (*Mail/Express*) ..	6¼	6	5
Third (*ordinary*)* ..	5½	5	4½

*upto 50 miles ordinary third class fares are charged at 5 pies per mile.

The Railway Passengers Fares Act—came into force on September 15, 1957. A percentage tax in the following basis is levied.

Description of passenger traffic	*rate of taz*
(*a*) upto 15 miles ..	Exempted from tax
(*b*) from 16 miles to 30 miles ..	5% of fare
(*c*) from 31 miles to 500 miles ..	15% of fare
(*d*) over 500 miles ..	10% of the fare
(*e*) on mileage coupons ..	12½ of the cost of the coupons
(*f*) on season tickets ..	exempted from tax

Goods Tariff—The rate structure for goods traffic has been revised. The highlights of the changes are—

(i) All separate charges, like short distance charges, transhipment charges which were distinct from the basic fraight rates, have been absorbed into the basic fraight rate.

(ii) With the exception of 31 commodities, all commodities have been brought under Railway Risk Rates.

(iii) From 15 class rates available for 'smalls' traffic and 13 wagon-load scales, after rivision, there are 99 wagon-load scales and 45 scales of charge for 'smalls'.

RAILWAY LOCOMOTIVE AND OTHER PRODUCTIONS—Internal production is now able to meet the railway's normal annual requirements of rails, wagons and coaches. The Government-owned Chittaranjan Locomotive Works and the Government-assisted Tata Locomotive and Engineering Co. Ltd., which have gone into

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production are helping to attain self-sufficiency in locomotives also. The Government extended financial assistance to the Telco at Jamshedpur by holding shares to the value of Rs. 2 crores for the manufacture of locomotives and spare boilers. The Chittaranjan Works started production in 1950. The first locomotive was turned out in 1950. The Integral Coach-building Factory at Perambur (Madras) has gone into production in October 1955, making a major step towards making the railways self-sufficient in passenger coaches. The Government-owned Hindustan Aircraft Ltd. at Bangalore are producing all-steel third class passenger coaches.

TRAINING CENTRES AND RESEARCH—Training facilities for officers in the Engineering and Traffic Departments are provided in several railway training and technical institutes. A Staff College for training of Class I and Class II officers and Special Class Apprentices were opened at Baroda on Jan. 31, 1952. The College provides facilities for training of probationery officers and special class apprentices, refresher courses for junior officers of all departments (except medical), and special short-term courses on selected subjects for senior officers. There are 50 training schools. Some of them are traffic training schools. In other schools loco-training staff, apprentice mechanics, train examiners and train apprentices are trained. A *Signal Training School* to train inspection staff of the Signalling Department of the Indian Railways has been opened in 1957 at Lallaguda in Secunderabad. This is the first of its kind in India and will train 100 candidates at a time.

ELECTRIFICATION OF RAILWAYS—The electrification of railways in India began in 1925. The total electrified route milage on the Indian Railways is 1328.87 miles as follows : Central Railway 184.85 miles ; Southern Railway 18.14 miles ; Western Railway 37.25 miles ; Eastern Railway 88.63 miles.

DIESELINATION—A few selected routes have been dieselised. A route milage of 1,293 is expected to be dieselised by 1960-61.

RAILWAY ZONES—The Indian Railway has been grouped into eight zones for economy and efficiency of administration. Certain narrow gauze feeder railways owned by private companies are not included in the zonal system, although under the Railway Companies (Emergency Provision) Act, 1951, Government assumed powers to ensure their efficient operation. The eight zones are now as follows :—

zone and dates of creation	*Former Rys. included*	*Headquarters*	*Route mileage as on March 31, 1959*
Southern April 14, 1951	M. & S.M., S.I. & Mysore Railways.	Madras	6,167.16
Central Nov. 5, 1951	G.I.P., Nizam's State, Dholpur and Scindia Railways	Bombay	5,368.8
Western Nov. 5, 1951	B.B. & C.I., Saurashtra, Cutch, Rajasthan and Jaipur Railways.	Bombay	6,247.24

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Northern April 14, 1952	Eastern Punjab, Jodhpur, Bikaner and the three divisions of E. I. Ry. and upper divisions of E. I. Ry.	Delhi	6,407.13
Eastern Aug. 1, 1955	E. I. Ry. (minus the three Upper Divisions).	Calcutta	2,324.84
South-Eastern Aug. 1, 1955	B. N. Ry.	Calcutta	3,575.16
North-Eastern April 14, 1952	O. T. & Assam Rys. and Fatehgarh Dist. of old B.B.C.I. Ry.	Gorakhpur	3,078.8
North-East Frontier Jan. 15, 1958	do do	Pandu	1,733.4

South-Eastern Railway—has the route mileage of 3,419.48 This Railway caters to the needs of six States, that is, West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bombay. Starting from Howrah it runs 72 miles west upto Kharagpur. Onwards from Kharagpur, the Railway spreads out in three directions. Westwards the main line goes to Nagpur, 703 miles from Howrah. To the South, the east coast line runs to Waltair, a distance of 547 miles from Howrah. The third line runs from Kharagpur in the north-westerly direction to serve the coal fields of West Bengal and Bihar. The Raipur-Vizianagram broad gauge section which was opened in 1931, links the port of Visakhapatnam with Madhya Pradesh for carrying the heavy manganese ore traffic for export from this area. The Railway joins the Eastern Railway at Howrah, Asansol, Gomoh, Barkakana and Chandrapura. It joins the southern Railway at Waltair and with the Central Railway at Nagpur and Katni. Connecting the ports of Calcutta and Visakhapatnam with their vast hinterlands, it serves the rich paddy fields of West Bengal, the extensive hinterlands of Orissa and Madhya Pradesh, as also the coal and steel industries of Bihar and West Bengal. The area covered by the railway is rich in deposits of essential raw materials, such as iron ore, copper, coal, manganese, lime, bauxite and dolomite. Many of the major development projects in eastern India lie on this railway, such as (1) Hirakud project at Sambalpur, (2) two steel plants at Rourkela and Bhilai, (3) Hindusthan Shipyard at Visakhapatnam. (4) oil refinery at Visakhapatnam, (5) two steel works at Tatanagar and Burnpur.

North-Eastern Railway—which came into existence on January 15, 1958 serves the northern part of West Bengal and Assam, northern part of Uttar Pradesh and Northern Bihar. This line has been formed with the former Oudh and Tirhut Railway and Assam Railway. It passes through an area which is subject to heavy rains and consequent floods and breaches. This line operates in a well-developed agricultural region and carries large quantities of sugarcane, tobacco, and rice.

North-East Frontier Railway—came into existence on 15th Janu-

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ary, 1958 by separating a portion of North-Eastern Railway. This line begins from Assam and serves northern part of Bengal. The Darjeeling-Himalayan line is within this zone.

Eastern Railway—has a route mileage of 2,324.68. The railway serves an area of over 80,000 sq. miles and covers West Bengal, Bihar and parts of Uttar Pradesh which have a heavy population density. Working on the divisional system, the Eastern Railway has its headquarters at Calcutta. With its headquarters in Calcutta, the Eastern Railway extends to Budge-Budge, Diamond Harbour, Lakshmikantapur and Canning to the South ; Petropol and Gede to the East Pakistan border ; Lalgola and Barharwa to the north along both sides of the Bhagirathi and to Mughalsarai to the north-west via Grand Chord, the main line, the Sahibganj loop and the Gomoh-Barkakana-Daltonganj loop. Starting from Howrah, the main line of the Eastern Railway runs 137 miles to Sitarampur, 5 miles beyond Asansol, from here it radiates in two directions, one via : Patna and the other via. : Gaya to converge at Mughalsarai, 469 miles from Howrah where it joins the Northern Railway.

Connecting the Port of Calcutta with its rich and vast hinterland, the Railway provides transportation facilities to the rice, sugar, and jute producing areas of West Bengal and Bihar, coal and steel industries of the two States and mica and iron ore mines of Bihar. It serves a number of basic industries like metallergical and steel manufactures at Burnpur, Kulti and Durgapur, chemical fertilizers at Sindri and locomotive production at Chittaranjan, besides a host of other important industries like jute, chemical, jute paper, coke, engineering, cement, leather, glass, ceramics, carbide, cycles, automobiles, refractories, sugar and textiles situated in and around Calcutta and at other industrial centres.

Western Railway—serves Bombay, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. The line consists of former B. B C. I. Railway, Saurastra Railway, Rajasthan Railway and Jaipur Railway. This line serves the great industrial areas of Bombay, Ahmedabad and Baroda and handles tremendous quantities of cotton.

Central Railway—serves Bombay, Madhya Pradesh and north-western part of Madras. The line consists of the former G.I.P. Railway, Scindhia Railway, Dholpur Railway and Nizam's State-Railway.

Southern Railway—On April 14, 1951, the three railway systems, viz., Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway, South Indian Railway and Mysore Railway were integrated into a single railway zone—the Southern Railway serves the densely-populated fertile areas of Madras, Mysore, Kerala and parts of southern Bombay and Andhra. This railway links the northern and southern portion of India.

Northern Railway—This Railway came into being in 1952 through the synthesis of the three divisions of East Indian Railway, a portion of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway and the whole of the Eastern Punjab, Jodhpur and Bikaner Railways. This line serves Punjab, Delhi, northern and eastern Rajasthan and Uttar-Pradesh upto Banaras.

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SOME RAILWAY ORGANISATIONS

Central Standards Office—There is a Central Standards Office in New Delhi for the conduct of all works connected with the production of standard design and specifications for all materials, plant and rolling stock in use on Indian railways. Three separate branches of this office deal respectively with mechanical engineering standards, civil engineering standards and specifications, while a separate research branch undertakes civil and mechanical engineering research.

Indian Railway Conference Association—This Association was first organised in 1871. The present organisation was inaugurated in 1902 establishing the permanent Conference, independent of Government. The Association lays down rules for the interchange of stock between railways and acts as a central co-ordinating agency for tackling all problems of common interest pertaining to the different systems of railways in regard to transport, such as coaching tariff, freight structure, interchange rules, cross traffic rules, etc.

Research, Design and Standard Organisation—There is a Railway Research, Design and Standard Organisation which is in charge of a Director-General for coordinating the functions of the three different wings of the Organisation.

Consultative Committees—In order to afford closer consultation between the public and the railway administrations at different levels on matters relating to the service provided by the railway, consultative committees have been established in place of the advisory committees—

(1) *Regional Railway Users' Consultative Committees* at the regional or divisional levels represent the local users in the territories served by the railways including agricultural interests.
(2) *Zonal Railway Users' Consultative Committees* at the headquarters of each railway zone, and
(3) *National Railway Users' Consultative Committee* at the Centre deals with matters of all-India importance relating to services and facilities provided by the railways.
(4) *Divisional Railway users' Consultative Committees* have been set up for each division of the railways on which divisionalisation has already been brought out.
(5) *Zonal Parliamentary Committees* have been formed which meet the respective General Managers of the Zonal Railways to deal with the great variety of problems of interest.

Other Committees are—*Time-Table Committee, Suburban Railway Users' Consultative Committee, Passenger Amenities Committee, Catering Supervisory Committee and the Book-stall Committee.*

Railway Rates Tribunal—This Tribunal has been established in 1949. It enquires into complaints lodged by the commercial bodies and representative trade associations in the matter of freight charges on railways and other cognate matters. Its office is located in Madras. The Tribunal deals only with freight rates and have mandatory juris-

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diction. It consists of a President and two members. To assist the Tribunal, two panels of assessors are constituted, one representing trade, industry and agriculture and the other, the railways.

Railway Service Commissions—There are Railway Service Commissions in Bombay, Calcutta, Allahabad and Madras for the purpose of recruitment of railway personnel for the respective zonal railways. Each Service Commission has a Chairman and one/two members, a Secretary with a secretariat.

Efficiency Bureau—has been set up, whose function mainly is to investigate problems having a bearing on the efficiency of the railways in various facets of working and to suggest ways and means of securing improvements in efficiency.

Central Clearing House—There is a Clearing Accounts Office at Delhi whose main function is to allocate inter-railway revenue and expenditure under various heads to the different railways.

RAILWAY AMENITIES—Since independence, great improvements have taken place in providing amenities for passengers. Formerly all the amenities were meant for upper class passengers. The third class passengers who form the majority of railway passengers were more or less neglected. During the past few years, much has been done to make rail more comfortable and to remove the gap in the amenities enjoyed by various classes of passengers. The improvements are being directed particularly for third class passengers.

The following improvements may be noted here—

(1) All-steel light-weight coaches.

(2) Reservation of coaches for long distance travels in important trains and reservation of accommodation.

(3) Introduction of 903 trains.

(4) All-third class *Janata* trains—vestibuled air-conditioned trains.

(5) Dining cars, retiring rooms and upper class entrances and exists have been thrown open to third class passengers.

(6) Fully air-conditioned trains for first and third class passengers have been introduced.

NON-GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS

	mileage	*Classification*
Ahmadpur-Katwa ..	32	Under guarantee terms
Arrah-Sasaram Light ..	65	Subsidised by Dist. Board
Bankura-Damodar River ..	60	Under guarantee terms
Bakhtiarpur-Bihar Light ..	33	Subsidised by Dist. Board
Burdwan-Katwa ..	32	Under guarantee terms
Dehri-Rothas Light ..	42	Subsidised by Dist. Board
Fatwah-Islampur ..	27	Under guarantee terms
Howrah-Amta Light ..	49	Subsidised by Dist. Board
Howrah-Sheakhala Light ..	17	do
Sahadara-Saharanpur Light	93	Company line

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RAILWAY TRAFFIC

	Passengers (000)	*Passenger earnings (lakhs Rs.)*	*Goods* (000 tons)	*Goods earnings (lakhs Rs.)*
1951-52	12,32,073	11,142	98,025	15,395
1952-53	12,12,090	10,183	98,370	14,381
1953-54	12,20,400	10,135	99,360	14,539
1954-55	12,60,890	10,374	1,06,979	15,645
1955-56	12,97,431	10,875	1,15,283	17,792
1956-57	13,82,540	11,739	1,25,380	20,109
1957-58	14,31,059	12,008	1,33,365	22,572
1958-59	.15,40,922	117,57	1,36,700	237,04

STATISTICS OF TRAFFIC OF ALL INDIA RAILWAYS

Route mileage	1956-57	34,744	*Tons originating (millions)*		
	1957-58	34,889		1956-57	125
	1958-59	35,081		1957-58	134
				1958-59	138
Passengers originating (millions)	1956-57	1,383	*Net ton miles (millions)*		
	1957-58	1,430		1956-57	40,225
	1958-59	1,441		1957-58	45,644
				1958-59	46,752
Passenger miles (millions)	1956-57	42,194			
	1957-58	43,329			
	1958-59	42,501			

MILEAGE OF INDIAN RAILWAYS

	Mileage		*Mileage*		*Mileage*
1853 ..	20	1923-24 ..	38,039	1951-52 ..	34,119
1863 ..	2,507	1933-34 ..	42,953	1952-53 ..	34,275
1873 ..	5,697	1943-44 ..	40,512	1953-54 ..	34,406
1883 ..	10,447	1947-48 ..	33,985	1954-55 ..	34,705
1893 ..	18,459	1948-49 ..	33,861	1955-56 ..	34,736
1903 ..	26,956	1949-50 ..	34,002	1956-57 ..	34,744
1913-14 ..	34,656	1950-51 ..	34,079	1957-58 ..	34,889
				1958-59 ..	35,081

INDIAN RAILWAYS

(In lakhs of Rs.)

	Capital Charge	*Gross earnings*	*Working Expenses*	*Net earnings*
1853 ..	38	0.90	0.41	0.49
1863 ..	53,00	2,20	1,33	87
1873 ..	91,73	7,23	3,78	3,45
1903 ..	341,11	36,01	17,11	18,90
1947-48 ..	742,20	183,69	163,94	19,75
1950-51 ..	838,18	264,62	214,39	50,23
1955-56 ..	975,50	317,51	261,07	57,34

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1956-57	.. 1,078,23	350,55	280,13	70,42
1957-58	.. 1,228,64	382,99	311,16	71,84
1958-59	.. 1,362,89	392,33	324,57	67,76

RAILWAY FACTS

The Indian Railway at present is the biggest railway system in Asia and the fourth in the world.

* * * * *

The total investments in all railways in India, including non-government railways and lines under construction, amounted to Rs. 1,441.52 crores in 1958-59.

* * * * *

India has the second largest natonalised railway system in the world, the first being that of the U.S.S.R.

There are about 6,500 Railway Stations in India.

Third class passengers contribute 90 p.c. of the railway receipts.

* * * *

Indian railways operate ever 7,000 tracks daily, of which about 4,500 are passenger trains.

* * * *

If all the passenger coaches of the different railways could be put together, a 125-mile long train could be formed.

* * * *

Daily, the Indian railways carry about 4,000,000 passengers or about one per cent of the country's population.

* * * *

India has three gauges of railways—Broad Gauge (5'-6"), Metre Gauge (3'-3⅜"), Narrow Gauge (2'-6" and 2').

* * * *

Most Indian railway gauges are five feet six inches wide and they are the broadest in the world.

* * * *

The famous trains of India are the *Deccan Queen* of the Central Railway which links Bombay with Poona. It is the fastest short distance train, maintaining for some time a start to stop speed of 45 miles per hour. *Flying Ranee* run by Western Railway between Bombay and Surat is a corridor train in India. *Delhi Madras Grand Trunk Express* runs 1,361 miles and traverses half the sub-continent of India. *Frontier Mail*, though short of its previous grandeur, provides the shortest and the quickest service between Bombay and the North.

* * * *

Indian Railways carry 80 per cent of the goods traffic and 70 per cent of the passenger traffic.

* * * *

Railway station with smallest letters is "IB' railway station in

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South-Eastern Railway between Jharsuguda and Brajarajnagar in Orissa.

Biggest Indian Railway tunnel is the Torsi Tunnel, which is three-quarters of a mile long.

* * * *

Fully vestibuled third class Janata Express was introduced on October 7, 1955 between Delhi and Howrah. Similar trains have since been introduced on other main trunk routes, viz., Delhi-Madras, Madras-Howrah and Madras-Bombay.

* * *

Oldest iron bridge in India is the old iron bridge over river Gumti, Lucknow.

* * *

The longest platform in India (2,415 ft.) is at Sonepur.

* * *

There are 349 bookstalls on the Indian railways. The Railway-wise distribution is : Southern 91 ; Central 66, Northern 61 ; Western 41 ; North-Eastern 40 ; Eastern 29 and South Eastern 21.

* * *

The Indian Railways consume nearly ten million tons of coal every year.

* * *

The longest bridge, the Sone Bridge, has 95 spans, each a hundred feet apart. It is 10,052 ft. long.

* * *

The Indian Railways are the largest employers in the country, employing nearly a million men at an annual cost of about Rs. 123 crores.

Important Railway Dates

1853—First Indian Railway was opened on 16th April, 1853 between Bombay and Thana, a distance of 13 miles.

1905—Railway Board came into existence in March, 1905.

1925—First electric train in India ran between Victoria Terminus (Bombay) and Kurla.

1937—First air-conditioned coach to run in public service in India was attached to an Indian train in 1937 between Bombay and Delhi.

1951—Formal opening of the Chittaranjan Locomotive Works on 26th Jan. 1951.

1952—Railway Staff College at Baroda was opened in Jan., 1952.

1953—Indian Railways Centenary Exhibition was opened in New Delhi and Calcutta on 2nd Oct., 1953.

1956—First vestibuled air-conditioned third class express started between Delhi and Calcutta on 2nd Oct., 1956.

1956—First All-Indian all-steel integral broad gauge passenger coach was launched at Perambur (Madras) on 14th August, 1956.

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TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

TRANSPORT—The Department of Transport of the Government of India is concerned with the following subjects—(1) Major and Minor Ports (2) Shipping and Shipyards (3) Lighthouses and Lightships (4) Inland Water Transport (5) Road Transport (6) Co-ordination of different means of transport including Railways (7) Road Development including National Highways (8) Central Road Fund (9) Tourism.

In order to facilitate its working, the Department has been divided into two wings—

1. *Transport Wing* dealing with Ports, Shipping and Shipyards, Inland Water Transport, Road Transport including National Highways.
2. *Road Wing* dealing with matters concerning construction and development of Roads including National Highways.

A separate *Department of Tourism* has been created in March 1958 under the charge of a Director-General to deal with matters exclusively concerning Tourism.

TRANSPORT CO-ORDINATION—For effective co-ordination between the various modes of transport on the one hand and the Central and State Transport policies on the other, the Government of India have set up the following bodies in place of Transport Advisory Council, Central Board of Transport and the Standing Committee of the Central Board of Transport—

1. Transport Development Council.
2. Road and Inland Water Transport Advisory Committee.
3. Central Transport Co-ordination Committee.

Transport Development Council—is a high level body to advise the Government of India on matters of policy relating to roads, road transport as well as inland water transport. The council will also advise on problems relating to co-ordination between different forms of transport that may be referred to.

Road and Inland Water Transport Advisory Committee has been set up to discuss problems relating to roads, road transport and inland water transport and to make recommendation to the Transport Development Council for final decisions.

Central Transport Co-ordination Committee has been set up in place of the Standing Committee of the Central Board of Transport to deal with the day to day transport problems of the different Ministries of the Government of India.

1. ROADS

ROAD PROBLEM IN INDIA—The importance of roads and the facilities of transportation in a vast country like India can scarcely

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be exaggerated. A system of well-kept and well-constructed roads is essential for country's economic and actual progress. The roads have also a vital role to play in the defence of India. The effectiveness of defence depends on the ability of our armed forces to concentrate at any threatened point within shortest possible time. So the effectiveness of our defence to a large extent depends on the efficiency of our road system. India's deficiency in the matter of roads has contributed very largely to her agricultural, commercial and industrial backwardness today. The most serious defect is the lack of proper and adequate road communication between villages and markets. Another aspect of inadequacy of our road system is that it is unbalanced. The trunk roads are, for example, relatively more highly developed than the district and village roads. Most of the rural roads are fair-weather roads. With the arrival of the monsoon, they are turned into mud and pools of dirty water and are rendered unusable.

SHORT HISTORY OF ROAD PROGRESS—The present road system is a superstructure raised on the old Mughal and other roads. Its development began one hundred years ago under the auspices of the Government of India. But Government's entire energy being directed towards opening of railways, the roads came to be regarded as of local importance, a fit subject for devolution. The culmination of the lack of interest was reached in the Government of India Act of 1919 which transferred the subject to the provinces. The Central Government ceased to concern itself with road development except the roads of military importance and certain arterial roads in Indian States.

But the circumstances changed after the World War I. Motor transport began to come in the forefront and it became a common feature on the principal roads throughout the country. The result was that the road expansion could not keep pace with the increase of motor traffic and the existing roads began to deteriorate. A resolution was carried in the Council of State in 1927 for the improvement of road system with the result that a committee of both the chambers of the Central Legislature was set up under the chairmanship of Dr. M. R. Jayakar to investigate and report. The Jayakar Committee in 1928 reported that the onus of road development was passing beyond the capacity of Provincial Governments and local bodies, that it was becoming a matter of national importance, and to that extent might be a proper charge on Central revenues. The Committee recommended that the Centre should assist co-ordinated development by making annual block grants to provinces from out of a Central Road Fund built up by a petrol tax surcharge of two annas per gallon. The Committee considered that the balances in the Fund should not be allowed to lapse at the end of each year, as road programme was required to be planned and executed over a number of years and for this purpose continuance of funds should be assured. The Jayakar Committee also recommended the setting up of (*i*) a separate Road Development Committee in the Central Government, (*ii*) a Transport Advisory Committee consisting of the

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representatives from Central Government and the Provinces, (*iii*) a Central Organisation of Information and Research. A *Central Road Organisation* was set up in 1930 and a *Transport Advisory Council* in 1935.

After this, the Indian Road Congress was largely instrumental in producing an integrated road plan for the whole of India known as '*Nagpur Plan*'. It visualised an integrated development of roads for the whole country at a time when very few among them were even conscious of countrywide development.

ROAD ADMINISTRATION—Road Development is shared by the Centre and the States, the former being responsible for the National Highways and certain selected roads of strategic or other importance and the States for their own State roads and for village roads. A central Road Fund was created in 1929 from the proceeds of a surcharge on petrol tax. Out of this fund, block grants were made to the Provinces for road-building. In 1947, the Central Government assumed the responsibility for the construction and maintenance of the "National highways". Under the Indian Constitution, national highways have become Central subjects, while other roads, namely State highways and district and village roads, are the responsibility of the State Governments.

The Department of Transport (Road Wing) of the Central Government is responsible for the construction and development and maintenance and repairs of roads other than National Highways in the Union Territories. N. E. Frontier Agency, Naga Hills—Tuensang Area and certain roads are under the charge of the Central Public Works Department in Sikkim.

CENTRAL ROAD FUND—The creation of Central Road Fund in 1929 on the recommendation of Jayakar Committee, constitutes a milestone in the history of road transport in India. This fund was built up out of an additional tax of two annas (now 2½ annas) a gallon on motor spirit. The Road Fund is administered by the Central Government with the advice of a standing committee of the Central Legislature. Part of the fund—one sixth—is to be reserved for central administration, research, intelligence and grants for undertakings of special or all-India importance. The balance of the fund is for allocation to the Provinces and States according to the consumption of petrol in each administrative unit. Block grants to the provinces from the fund is intended to augment principal allotments for road development. The Central Road Fund continues to provide an important source for financing road development and research activities. It now provides about Rs. 4½ crores annually for the development of roads other than National Highways. A part of the Fund, now one-fifth, has been reserved for works of special all-India importance, the balance being allocated to the States for approved works.

NAGPUR PLAN—In December, 1943, a Conference of Chief Engineers was convened by the Government of India at the instance of the Indian Road Congress. This conference is an important landmark in the history of Indian roads so far as the road development in India is concerned. This conference drew up a ten-year plan of road development which is known as *Nagpur Plan*. The Nagpur

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Plan called for an increase of road mileage from 265,000 to 400,000 and an improvement of the existing roads. The Plan visualised the growth of a network of road communications at a cost of Rs. 372 crores within ten years.

The Conference classified roads under the following heads—*National Highways, Provincial or State Highways, Major District Roads, Minor District Roads* and *Village Roads.* National Highways are to be the frame-work for the country's road system. The *National Highways* will connect capitals of Provinces and States, ports and highways and constitute the main arteries of communication in the country. They will include roads of strategic importance. The *Provincial or State Highways* will be the main trunk roads of a Province or State. *Districts Roads* will connect areas of production and markets with either a highway or a railway. They will also form the main links between headquarters of neighbouring districts. *Minor District Roads* and *Village Roads* will mostly meet the requirements of rural population ; they will connect villages and groups of villages with one another and with nearest district road or river ghat.

Nagpur Plan recommends the assumption by the Central Government of complete financial liability, covering both fresh development and annual maintenance of roads designated as National Highways. These are to be administered by an impartial Road Board. With effect from 1st April, 1947 complete financial liability for the construction and maintenance of every road, which is classified as a National Highway, has been undertaken by the Government of India.

NATIONAL HIGHWAYS—The National Highway routes generally follow the existing trunk roads, which are already largely surfaced. (1) Amritsar to Calcutta (2) Agra to Bombay (3) Bombay to Madras *via* Bangalore (4) Madras to Calcutta (5) Calcutta to Bombay *via* Nagpur (6) Banaras to Cape Comorin via Nagpur, Hyderabad, Kurnal and Bangalore (7) Delhi to Bombay *via* Ahmedabad (8) Ahmedabad to Kandla Port (9) Ambala to Tibet border *via* Simla (10) Delhi to Lucknow *via* Moradabad (11) Lucknow to Barauni *via* Muzaffarpur (12) Assam Access Road (13) Assam Trunk Road with a branch to the Burma border through Manipur (14) Jawahar (Bunihal Tunnel at a height of about 7,250 ft. across Pir Panjal range on the Jammu-Srinagar-Uri National Highways. This will provide all-weather road between the Kashmir valley and the rest of India

National Highways	*miles*	National Highways	*miles*
Andhra Pradesh ..	1,412	Orissa ..	851
Assam ..	727	Punjab ..	795
Bihar ..	1,189	Rajasthan ..	450
Bombay ..	2,192	Uttar Pradesh ..	1,423
Jammu & Kashmir ..	328	West Bengal ..	833
Kerala ..	260	Delhi ..	44
Madhya Pradesh ..	1,404	Himachal Pradesh ..	222
Madras ..	1,050	Manipur ..	139
Mysore ..	536	Naga Hills-Tuensang Area	69

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INDIAN ROADS CONGRESS—The Central Government took steps to promote the creation of a semi-official body known as *Indian Roads Congress* in 1934. The membership of the body is open to qualified engineers dealing with roads. The Roads Congress is designed to provide a forum for the regular pooling of experience and ideas on all matters affecting the construction and maintenance of roads, to recommend standard specifications, and to provide a platform for the expression of professional opinion on matters relating to road engineering, including such questions as those of organisation and administration.

The most important contribution of Indian Roads Congress to the science of road engineering in India, besides the study of roads from various aspects, is the "standard specifications and Code of Practice for Road Bridges in India," which has been accorded general acceptance throughout India.

STANDARDS, ROAD RESEARCH AND TECHNICAL ACTIVITIES—The Central Designs Office of the Road Wing deals with items, such as, type designs for route marking for the National Highways and for furlong and boundary stones, principles to be followed in the erection of advertisement boards on road-sides, form of recording data on bridges, scrutiny of designs for bridges, production of road rollers, manufacture of road-making machinery, etc.

Central Road Research Institute has been started at Okhla in Delhi on July 16, 1952 for the research on road engineering in its various aspects and construction and maintenance of all kinds of roads. Technical advice is also given to State Governments on various problems concerning road works. It seeks to provide cheap and durable roads to suit growing transportation needs of a rapidly expanding economy.

Facilities for acquiring advanced practical training in modern methods of highway and bridge engineering are now being provided under various schemes. The Central Roads Organisation also imparts training to engineers from State Governments in modern methods of road and bridge designs.

Progress of road development—The total length of extra-municipal roads in the country increased from 3,28,000 at the end of 1956-57 to 3,57,600 at the end of 1957-58. With the addition of 29,600 miles during the year 1957-58, the targets laid down in the Nagpur Plan in respect of mileage of roads were fully achieved—

	Nagpur Plan targets	*mileage of roads* 1957-58
	(miles)	(miles)
Surfaced roads	.. 1,23,000	1,33,610
Unsurfaced roads	.. 2,08,000	2,23,966
	3,31,000	3,57,576

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2. ROAD TRANSPORT

The Constitution empowers the Central Government to legislate on the principles of motor vehicles taxation,—but the power to levy taxes on motor vehicles vests in the States. Motor vehicles are now playing an important part in the road transport of India and are slowly replacing bullock-carts. It was virtually unknown before World War I, but soon after the war ended, public transport services rapidly sprang up. The Motor Vehicles Act of 1939 was a big step towards creating for condition enabling motor transport to develop along sound lines. Direct taxation of motor vehicles is a State subject in India. Three agencies levy taxes on motor transport, *viz*, the Centre, the States and the Local Bodies. Further, the taxes are not based on any common policy but only on the exigencies of Budget. The Central taxes are import duties on cars, etc., and customs and excise duties on motor spirit. The States levy two taxes, a sales tax on motor spirit and a motor vehicle tax, both varying from State to State. The local taxes are octroi, transit fees and wheel tax. The motor transport in this country has been solely developed by private enterprise. The second Five-Year Plan says that the total number of motor vehicles on the roads is only 353,000, which "must be considered very small, having regard to the size of the country, its road mileage and its population. The main reason for this arrested development is the crushing taxation levied on motor vehicles of all types."

ADMINISTRATION OF ROAD TRANSPORT—Passenger road transport has been nationalised in many States and Union Territories. These services are being operated by statutory *Road Transport Corporations* set up by the State Governments under the Road Transport Corporations Act, 1950, joint stock companies and State developments. Goods transport is, however, largely carried on by private companies. An *Inter-State Transport Commission* has been set up for the purpose of development, co-ordination and regulation of road transport services on inter-State routes. The Government of India have set up Transport Development Council, the Road and Inland Water Transport Advisory Committee and the Central Transport Co-ordination Committee for the proper co-ordination between different modes of transport on the one hand and Central and State policies on the other. There is a *Transport Development Council* which is a high level body to advise the Central Government on all matters of policy relating to roads, roads transport as well as inland water transport. *The Motor Vehicles Act of* 1939 was thoroughly amended in 1956 for the planned development of motor transport in the country. The Act contains the provisions for the nationalisation of motor transport service. The Act provides for the establishment of *Inter-State Transport Commission* which to be appointed by the Central Government. This was appointed in 1958 for the purpose of developing, regulating and co-ordinating the operation of transport vehicles of any area or route common

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to two or more States and performing such other function as may be presented by the Central Government.

MOTOR VEHICLES IN INDIA

	No. of Motor Vehicles		
1947	.. 2,11,949	1953	.. 3,34,805
1948	.. 2,25,227	1954	.. 3,38,820
1949	 2,69,669	1955	.. 3,76,477
1150	.. 2,94,729	1956	.. 4,22,041
1951	.. 3,06,313	1957	.. 4,57,273
1952	.. 3,09,635	1958	.. 4,99,273*

*provisional

ROPEWAYS—Ropeways are used in India in areas of hilly and broken country where valleys and streams abound and gradients are steep and where other forms of communication are primitive or non-existent. These conditions obtain in the foothills of the Himalayas and in some parts of South India. In India the use of ropeways is confined to the movement of materials and merchandise. The following are the Ropeways operating in India at present—(1) *Darjeeling-Bijanbari mono-cable ropeway* which is five miles long with one span of 6,000 ft. (2) *Mono-cable ropeway* at Kalimpong which climbs 3,400 ft. in its length. Both these ropeways are regarded as extensions to railway system. (3) *Cherra Chatak Ropeways* at Cherrapunji in Assam. (4) *Annamalai Ropeway* in South India serves tea and coffee on the 5,000 feet high plateau.

Apart from these several purposes, public or semi-public applications, ropeways transport is extensively used in the tea planting districts. It is also found in coal-mining areas, mainly in Bihar and Bengal where it provides a particularly economical method of transporting waste to spoil damps. It is used in the manufacture of cement and in the working of quarries, mines, sand, gravel and clay pits. Ropeways are used elsewhere in civil engineering for large constructions, such as masonry dams and bridges. There are approximately 100 ropeways operating in India today.

3. INLAND WATER TRANSPORT

POSITION OF INLAND WATERWAYS IN INDIA—From ancient times, the trade and commerce of northern India has been facilitated by the abundance of navigable streams. History records evidence of a flourishing trade carried on along the rivers and canals of India from the earliest times.

Inland Water Transport played an important role in India's transport system till the middle of the nineteenth century. With the development of railways and roads and the withdrawal of large volumes of water for irrigation in the upper reaches of the river, its importance declined. However, in certain parts of India, *e.g.*, U.P. Bihar, West Bengal, Assam and Kerala, it is recognised as an im-

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portant means of transport, and on the East and West Coasts there are several stretches of canals where inland water transport plays an important role. There are at present 5,500 miles of navigable waterways, of which the important ones are the Ganga, the Brahmaputra and Godavari, the Krishna, the backwaters and the canals of Travancore-Cochin, the Buckingham Canal and the Mahanadi Canals of Orissa. At present 1,557 miles of rivers are navigable by mechanically-propelled vessels and 3,587 miles by large country boats. The subject "shipping and navigation on inland waterways as regards mechanically propelled vessels" is included in List III of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution and the Central Government have powers of concurrent legislation in this respect. Shipping and Navigation on National Waterways declared as such by law by Parliament are the concern of the Central Government. No waterways have so far been declared as National Waterways. The executive responsibility in the field of Inland Water Transport therefore rests with the State Government wholly. The new multipurpose river valley projects include schemes for navigation channels.

GANGA BRAHMAPUTRA WATER TRANSPORT BOARD—The need for developing inland waterways has now been realised. A beginning has already been made with the constitution of the *Ganga Brahmaputra Water Transport Board* in 1952 by the Government of India. For ensuring the co-ordinated development of Indian Water Transport, Inter-State Corporation is necessary ; so the setting up of the Board was by agreement between the Central Government and the Governments of U. P. Bihar, West Bengal and Assam. The Board's funds are derived from annual recurring contributions made by the participant Governments, supplemented by *ad-hoc* grant for capital project made by the Central Government from time to time.

Works of the Board—The Board has so far built two survey launches, two small tugs, eight burges and a dredger and two big tugs for the upper Ganga Pilot Project.

INLAND WATER TRANSPORT COMMITTEE—was formed in February 1957 to enquire into the position regarding the development of I.W.T. and make comprehensive recommendations for the future development of inland water transport. The Committee has sent up certain interim recommendations, involving an expenditure of Rs. 300 lakhs for implementation during the Second Five-Year Plan.

4. CIVIL AVIATION IN INDIA

HISTORY OF CIVIL AVIATION—Human flight began in India by balloon, when Mr. Joseph Lynn took off from Lalbagh Gardens, Bombay, in 1877 and rose to a height of 7,500 feet. By 1911, however, army officers were able to make demonstration flights in a "power driven" aeroplane ; and in the same year the world's first "air mail" was flown from Allahabad to Naini Junction—a distance of six miles, by a French pilot, M. Picqet. Lord Lloyd, then Governor

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of Bombay, organised the first regular Airmail Service in 1920, but it was not until 1926 that the pace of development accelerated.

The plans of Imperial Airways for a service between England and India during that year gave Indian civil aviation a powerful stimulus. A Department of Civil Aviation was established to regulate international and internal services in 1927; aerodromes were constructed, and flying clubs started encouraging public interest in this new form of transport. With the first scheduled flights between London and Karachi in 1929, India joined other countries on the new air maps of the world.

In the following fifteen years, from 1930 to the end of World War II in 1945, Indian civil aviation expanded until the farthest corners of the sub-continent were linked by air. Foremost in this growth were Tata Airlines Ltd. and Indian National Airways, followed by many other private companies; almost all of them were benefited in experience, equipment and finance by their military services during the war years. The war also brought about tremendous advances in other aspects of air transport: hundreds of new aerodromes were built, flight and communications techniques were improved and the advantages of flying as a safe, efficient and comfortable form of transport were firmly established.

From 1945, passenger and freight traffic steadily increased over the air routes of the eleven companies then licensed to operate. But costs also rose steeply, and it became progressively clear that the industry would be unable to mobilise adequate resources for undertaking urgent prospective development. Taking all this into account, a committee of enquiry was appointed by the Government in 1950 presided over by the late Mr. Rajadhyaksha to examine the working of the air lines and make recommendations regarding putting the Indian civil aviation on a stable basis. The Committee reported that (1) the number of operating units in the country was much greater than that required for the volume of business, (2) cost of most of the companies was excessive, (3) subject to reorganisation and reduction of costs, operation of air lines by private enterprise might be allowed to continue.

The financial position of the companies, however, continued to deteriorate. The companies were not in a position to raise funds in open market and suggested most of the finance should come from the Government in the form of loans on a nominal rate of interest without any early prospects of repayment. Taking all these into consideration, the Government came to the conclusion that all the units of operation should be owned by the State. The result was the passing of the Air Corporation Act, 1953 which came into force on the 28th May, 1953. It provided for the setting up of two Corporations, one for the operation of long distance and another for domestic services and services to neighbouring countries. The two Corporations took over the existing companies as going concerns with their assets and liabilities in accordance with the provisions of the Act.

The main Provisions of the Air Corporation Act—(1)An *Air Transport Council* to be established to tender advice on matters of

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public importance. (2) *An Advisory Committee* for each Corporation to be established for the purpose of maintaining liaision with the public. (3) There will be *Labour Relations Committee* for each Corporation consisting of representatives of the Corporation and of employees. This committee will give advice to the Corporation relating to labour. (4) Finally each Corporation is to act so far as may be on business principles.

The two Corporations, *viz., Indian Airlines Corporation* and *Air India International*, came into formal existence on the 15th June, 1953. On the 1st August, 1953 Air-India International took over the business of the Air-India International Ltd., while the Indian Airlines Corporation took over as a going concern the assets, liabilities and business of eight units, namely, Airways (India) Ltd., Himalayan Aviation Ltd., Kalinga Airlines, Bharat Airways Ltd., Air-India Ltd., Air Services of India Ltd., Deccan Airways Ltd., and Indian National Airways Ltd.

The Corporation had appointed Resident Representatives stationed at the appropriate Line offices. The total area of operations had also been divided into two Regions, and in each such Region one Representative had senior charge of all other Lines. This set-up has now been replaced by a fully integrated one, where the organisation in its entirety is controlled by a strong centre—each Head of a Department being in charge of the relevant sections at the Zones.

The *Indian Airlines Corporation* consists of a Chairman and 6 members appointed by the Government. The Corporation is a statutory body, thoroughly independent to manage its day-to-day business. The Government, however, has the power to issue directives to it from time to time. It further receives their annual programmes of operations and financial estimates. The accounts of the Corporation are audited by the Comptroller and Auditor-General, and are then placed by Government before both Houses of Parliament, together with appropriate audit reports. When development capital is required by the Corporations, it has to be provided either by the Central Government or by authorised borrowing, under issue of bonds, debentures, debenture stock or other security.

On April 1959, the Indian Airlines Corporation had an operational fleet of 80 aircraft, but the strength was reduced to 75 aircraft by February, 1960 consisting of 57 Dakotas, 5 Skymasters, 3 Herons and 10 Viscounts. Two of the three Boeing 707 jet aircraft were received in March 1960 at a cost of Rs. 11.50 crores. Third and fourth Boeing will be delivered shortly. The Corporation has ordered for the purchase of 5 Fokker Friendship aircraft at a cost of Rs. 234.21 lakhs on the basis of barter deal. The capacity ton miles operated by the Indian Airlines Corporation during 1958-59 were 64,075 million. There were 135 navigational aids and 548 communication facilities available at 80 aeronatical telecommunication stations maintained by the Civil Aviation Department in 1959.

In 1959, 25 ultra-light *Pushpak I* aircraft were manufactured by the Hindustan Aircraft Ltd.

ORGANISATION OF CIVIL AVIATION—The civil aviation in

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India is placed in charge of a Director-General assisted by Deputy Directors-General and the functions of the Department are distributed among several Directorates, each responsible for several branches of civil aviation activity. The Civil Aviation Department is at present attached to the Ministry of Communications, which controls the Posts and Telegraphs Department and utilises air transport for the carriage of mails. Indian Air Force is in the Ministry of Defence but Civil Aviation is not entirely independent of military aviation. In order to co-ordinate policy with respect to civil and military aviation and to maintain the necessary liaison, a Standing Committee has been constituted comprising officers of the Ministries of Defence and Communications who meet as necessary for the purpose of important questions of policy.

The Director-General of Civil Aviation is the administrative authority for controlling all civil aviation activities in India.

AVIATION TRAINING AND FLYING CLUBS—To meet the needs of the country for trained technical personnel, the Government of India is running the *Civil Aviation Training Centre at Allahabad*, which provides courses in flying, aircraft maintenance engineering, air traffic control, aeronautical tele-communications and air navigation. This Training Centre at Allahabad comprises the following four wings—(1) Flying Schools (2) Aerodrome officers' Training School (3) Engineering School (4) Communication School. In addition, a Repair and Overhaul Organisation is also attached to the Centre for carrying out repairs and overhaul of the Central aircraft. Pilots, aircraft engineers, aerodrome officers, control operators, fire operators, radio operators, radio technicians and pilot instructors are trained in the Training Centre at Allahabad. There are sixteen subsidised flying clubs in India with headquarters at Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Nagpur, Patna, Jullundur, Bhuvaneswar, Jaipur, Bangalore, Indore, Begumpet, Gauhati and Lucknow (with satellite centres at Allahabad, Kanpur and Banaras), Trivandrum, Baroda, These Clubs train 'A' and 'B' licence pilots. In addition to this, there are three Government Gliding Centres at Allahabad, Bangalore, Poona and two subsidised gliding clubs at Delhi and Pilani.

AERODROMES & AERONAUTICAL TELE-COMMUNICATIONS—The total number of aerodromes maintained by the Civial Aviation Department is 85—of these, three are international air ports—Bombay (*Santa Cruz*), Calcutta (*Dum Dum*), Delhi (*Palam*). The aerodromes at Agartala, Ahmedabad, Patna, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi (*Palam*), Delhi (*Safdarganj*), Madras, Tiruchirapalli, Jodhpur, Bhuj and Amritsar have been declared customs aerodromes.

AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL—As a member of the International Civil Aviation Organisation, India has to meet the standards laid down by that organisation in respect of aerodrome equipment and air traffic control facilities. So *Air Traffic Control Organisation* has been established for the maintenance of air traffic control services for international aircraft landing and passing through the country as well as internal air services. The Air Traffic Control Organisation

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is responsible for the safety and control of aircraft in the air and on the ground. For this purpose, the country has been divided into four regions with area control centres at Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.

AIRCRAFT & PILOTS—The number of aircraft holding current certificates of registration at the end of 1959 was 500, of which 190 held current certificates of airworthiness.

NIGHT MAIL—Mention must be made of Indian Airlines operation of the unique Night Airmail system. Every night four IAC aircraft fly between Bombay and Nagpur, Madras and Nagpur, Calcutta and Nagpur, and Delhi and Nagpur. Letters, packets and parcels are re-distributed at Nagpur, then flown back to the four main cities. For no extra charge, the Indian people thus have the fastest possible long distance postal service to all points in the country. And to make full use of these aircraft, passengers can "fly with the mails" as it were, at specially reduced rates.

NON-SCHEDULED SERVICES—In addition to Air India International and Indian Airlines Corporation, fourteen subsidised flying clubs and six air transport companies hold permits for the operation of non-scheduled services. Besides these, two other aircraft companies hold permits for giving joy-rides.

Progress of Civil Aviation
(Scheduled Services)

	miles flown (in 000)	*passengers* (in 000)	*freight* (in-000 lb)	*mails* (in 000 lb)
1947	9,362	255	5,648	1,405
1948	12,649	341	11,975	1,583
1949	15,098	357	22,500	5,032
1950	18,896	453	80,007	8,356
1951	19,498	449	87,665	7,182
1952	19,562	434	86,038	8,377
1953	19,202	404	84,820	8,846
1954	19,798	432	86,415	10,673
1955	21,267	469	98,200	11,478
1956	23,481	559	96,231	12,686
1957	23,496	615	85,691	13,081
1958	24,578	696	93,640	13,608
1959	24,913	722	73,620	14,981

Non-Scheduled Airline Operators

Air Assam, Calcutta.
Air Survey Co. of India, Calcutta.
Associated Airworks, Dum Dum.
Darbhanga Aviation, Calcutta.
El Al Israel Airlines Ltd., Bombay.
Indamar Co., Bombay, Calcutta.
Jamair, Calcutta.
Kalinga Airlines, Calcutta.

FOREIGN SERVICES

Air Ceylon Ltd., Madras.
Air France, Calcutta.
B. O. A. C., Bombay, Calcutta, New Delhi.
Cathay Pacific Airways, Calcutta.
K.L.M., Bombay, Cacutta, Madras, New Delhi.

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Pakistan International Airlines Corporation, Bombay, Calcutta, New Delhi.
Swissair (Swiss Airline) Bombay/Calcutta to Bangkok, Hong Kong, Taipeh, Manila, Tokio.
Pan-American World Airways, Bombay, Calcutta, New Delhi.
Qantas Empire Airways Ltd., Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, New Delhi.
Scandinavian Airlines System, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras New Delhi.
Trans-World Air Lines.
Thai Airways, Calcutta.
Union of Burma Airways, Calcutta.
Middle East Airlines (*B.O.A.C. Associate*) (London *via* Beirut, Athens, Rome).
Lufthansa Airlines, Germany.

SOME IMPORTANT DATES

1911—First Official Air Mail on 18th February, 1911 flown from U.P. Exhibition grounds, Allahabad to Naini Junction by M. Picquet, a French aviator.
1911—First passenger in an aeroplane in India was Sir Sefton Branker.
1912—Jules Tyck and Baron de Carters gave India her first public flying demonstration at Calcutta (Christmas Eve).
1918—First flight from Egypt to India by Capt. Ross Smith.
1919—First Eng.-India flight by Sqdrn.-Leader McLaren & Lt. Haley.
1920—First Air-mail service was organised by Govt. of India & operated by R.A.F. between Karachi and Bombay.
1927—Imperial Airways sent first air liner to India, January, 8.
1927—Civil Aviation Department formed in India.
1928—First Flying Club in India.
1929—First regular air-mail introduced between England and India on March 30, 1929.
1930—First India-trained pilot with 'B' Licence was Bhagat Lal.
1932—First Indian air-line came into existence on Oct. 15, 1932 when Tata Air-lines began to operate between Karachi-Bombay-Madras.
1949—First Class internal mails by air without a surcharge were introduced on April, 1949.
1953—Indian Airlines nationalised on 1st August.
1957—I.A.C. first introduced Turbo-prop plane Viscount in India.
1958—India-USSR airline opened by the Air India International.

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INDIAN SHIPPING

POSITION OF INDIAN MERCANTILE MARINE—India has about 3,500 miles of coastline extending international trade with the East and the West, a vast population to 'feed' and good prospects of industrialisation. She fully realizes the need of a powerful merchant navy able to compete in speed, carrying capacity and efficiency of service with the best mercantile marines of other nations. India's shipping industry is insignificant when compared to those of great maritime powers. The total Indian owned tonnage as at the end of December, 1959 stood at 7.39 lakh gross tons as against 6.38 lakh gross tons at the end of December, 1958. Indian ships are now operating in the overseas trades covering practically the entire world. Apart from the India-U.K.-Continent service, Indian ships now call at ports in the Soviet Union, Australia, East and West Africa, United States, and other Far East ports, Malaya and the Persian Gulf.

The *Shipping Policy Committee of* 1947 laid down the following objectives for Indian shipping with a view to securing a tonnage of two million in the near future, thereby securing for Indian shipping—(1) 100 per cent of the coastal trade of India, (2) 75 per cent of India's trade with Burma, Ceylon and other neighbouring countries, (3) 50 per cent of India's overseas trade and (4) 30 per cent of the orient's trade, formerly carried by Japanese, German and Italian vessels. Plan envisaged a rise in India's shipping tonnage from 390,707 GRT to 600,000 GRT by 1956.

The Government of India, by their resolution dated July 12, 1947, fully endorsed the above view of the Committee. They agreed that the definition of Indian Shipping should be shipping owned, controlled and managed by Indian nationals. They also laid down that following conditions should qualify any shipping company for treatment as "Indian shipping companies" :—(a) The steamers should be registered at a port or ports of India, (b) At least 75 p.c. of the shares of the companies should be held by Indians in their own rights, (c) All the directors should be Indians, (d) Managing agents, if any, should be Indians.

Further, steps were taken to reserve the costal trade of India for Indian ships only and a system of statutory licencing was introduced under the Control of Shipping Act, 1947, to give effect to the policy on coastal reservation.

Steps for the development of Indian Shipping.—The steps taken by the Government are detailed below :—

(1) Reservation of coastal shipping.
(2) Grant of loans.
(3) Sale of ships built at the Hindustan Shipyard at the United Kingdom parity price.
(4) Allotment of Government owned and/or controlled cargo.

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(5) Inclusion of clauses in trade agreements to ensure a proportion of cargo to Indian ships.
(6) Establishment of shipping services with the U.S.S.R. and Poland.
(7) Sponsoring admission to international Conferences.
(8) Establishment of State Shipping Corporations.
(9) Establishment of a Directorate.
(10) Administration of labour.
(11) Training of personnel.

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE—Under the Merchant Shipping Act a non-lapsing *Shipping Development Fund* on a statutory basis has been established in 1959. It provides a permanent source of rupee finance to Indian shipping companies to acquire ships. The Shipping Development Fund. Committee operates this Fund.

Loans—Loans are being granted to the shipping companies for purchase of ships. The total loan granted to private shipping companies by the Government in the Second Plan amounts to Rs. 1,407.61 lakhs.

Yen Credit—An amount of 5 billion Yen (Rs. 6.67 crores) has been earmarked from the Yen credit which the Government of India have recently been able to obtain from Japan for acquisition of ships. With the aid of this credit, the Western Shipping Corporation and the Scindi Steam Navigation Company have already placed two orders for a toanker and a cargoship in Japan.

SHIPPING CONTROL DEPARTMENT—With the reshuffle of Ministry, a Minister of Shipping has been appointed for the first time. The Shipping concerns several Ministries: Transport Production, Commerce and Industry, Defence, Works, Housing and Power. So, Directorate-General of Shipping has been set up in Bombay in 1949. It is the central body of the Government of India, controlling the whole problem of shipping in the country. Semi-Government shipping corporations, maritime conventions, seamen's welfare, nautical surveys, licences for deep-se navigation and light-houses are among the several maritime subjects which are dealt with by the organisation. The three principal officers of the Mercantile Marine Department at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras will function under the jurisdiction of the Director-General. The function of the Director-General includes the implementation of the Government's policies with regard to the development of India's merchant navy and the co-ordination of the activities of various ports.

COMMITTEES & BOARDS—(1) **Consultative Committee of Overseas Shipping Interests**—with a view to ensuring better understanding and co-operation between the Government of India, the country's export trade and the foreign shipping interests operating in India, the above additional committee has been founded in 1955 with 7 members, 4 from overseas shipping conferences, 2 from Indian National Steamship-owners' National Association and one from the export trade sphere.

(2) **Consultative Committee of Shipowners**—With a view to bringing about better liaison between the Government and the Indian

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shipping industry, an advisory body called Consultive Committee of Shipowners has been constituted.

(3) Shipping Co-ordination Committee—has been recently set up by the Government of India to secure close liaison between the appropriate Ministries of the Government of India on the one hand and Indian shipping interests on the other, so that Indian shipping is fully utilized for carrying Government cargo.

(4) National Welfare Board for seafarers which was setup in 1955 was reconstituted for a period of two years with effect from 16th August, 1958.

(5) National Shipping Board was formally inaugurated on April 10, 1959. The Board was given statutory status by the Indian Merchant Shipping Act of 1958 with the object of associating informed and interested public opinion with the efforts of the Government in developing merchant shippng.

(6) Central Advisory Committee for Light Houses—This is a statutory body with advisory function setup under the Indian Light House Acts and consists both of officials and non-officials.

(7) Central and Regional Advisory Committees for Saling Vessels—These Committees have been constituted in 1960. The Centra Committee advises Government on important matters of all India nature affecting the sailing vessels industry. There are at preyment four Regional Advisory Committees at Bombay, Jamnagor, Tuticorin and Masulipatam.

NEW MERCHANT SHIPPING ACT—This Act was passed in 1958. The Act, among other things, provides for the first time in the history of independent India, the opening of a register of Indian ships. It also provides for the setting up of a *National Shipping Board* and a *Shipping Development Fund* which will be made up of loans and grants from the Centre and will provide finance for shipping development. The new Act fixes 75 per cent Indian capital and 25 per cent foreign capital if a ship is to be called an Indian ship and be eligible to be brought under the Indian Register.

CATEGORIES OF INDIA'S MARITIME TRADE—India's maritime trade today may be summarised under the following categories :—

Pure coastal trade, originating or terminating at ports on the coast of the Union of India and the *non-coastal trade, i.e.,* the balance of the maritime trade with other countries of the world which would be styled as overseas trade. This latter may further be divided into : (1) Indian Ocean Trade ; (2) Atlantic Ocean trade ; (3) Atlantic or Pacific Ocean Trade. The first of these may be further divided into Western, *i.e.,* comprising South and East Africa, Red Sea and Persian Gulf, and Eastern including Burma, Ceylon, Malaya, China, Japan and Australia.

VESSELS—The importance of country craft in the economics of India's water transport cannot be ignored. The sailing vessel, though small in size, carries the bulk of the cargo between neighbouring ports at a relatively cheap cost and plays a vital part in serving as a feeder to industry. The following schemes have

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been approved by the Government of India as recommended by the Sailing Vessels Committee and the Estimates Committee for the development of sailing vessels industry.—(1) Division of the entire area of sailing vessels traffic into 4 regions, each manned by a Regional Officer (Sails) who will function as a Welfare Officer for the seamen of the sailing vessels—at Masulipatam (Andhra), Tuticorin (Madras & Kerala), Bombay (West Coast) and Jamnagar (Saurashtra). (2) Appointment of Central and Regional Advisory Committees for sailing vessels. The Government have approved the setting up of a Central Advisory Committee at Headquarters and four Regional Advisory Committees for sailing vessels (3) grant of financial assistance for mechanisation of sailing vessels and for construction of sailing vessels of modern design on scientific basis.

COASTAL TRADING—Our coastal trade has been reserved to national ships since August 1950. The Indian owned tonnage (ships of 150 gross tons and over) employed in the coastal trade at present is about 2.74-lakh gross tons as against 2.51-lakh gross tons in January 1959. While all coastal cargo is now carried by Indian ships, the Government also negotiated with foreign shipping interests and ensured for Indian Shipping a fair share of the Near Trades, *i.e.*, the trades with Burma, Ceylon and Pakistan. The position in this respect is now as follows—(1) *The Coastal Trade* : governed by the Indian Coastal Conference with 14 member liners, all Indians, (2) *The India-Burma Trade* : governed by two Conferences : India-Ceylon Conference and India-Pakistan- and 2 being British.

OVERSEAS SHIPPING—It is estimated that at present only about 10 per cent of the import and export cargo are being handled by Indian ships. Indian owned tonnage employed in the various overseas trades as on 31st December, 1959 consisted of 68 vessels of a total of 4.65-lakh gross tons as against 58 vessels with an aggregate of 3.87-lakh gross tons on 31st December, 1958. Though the Government has endorsed the policy of Indian shipping carrying at least 50 per cent of India's trade in international waters, there are number of hurdles which Indian shipping will have to cross for carrying 50 per cent of Indian overseas trade. The hurdles are—(1) a large number of Liner Conferences dominate these trades. Entry into such Conferences is not an easy matter. Indian Lines have not yet been admitted to membership of a number of Conferences. (2) Indian Shipping Companies will have to expand their tonnage on different lines where they do not go at present. (3) Passenger services should be opened with modern amenities. In order to facilitate the entry of Indian shipping into all important overseas trades and to assist in solving the difficulty experienced by Indian shipping companies for raising the necessary capital, the Government announced their scheme for the setting up of Shipping Corporation on a state-cum-private ownership basis. A Government sponsored shipping corporation known as the *Eastern Shipping Corporation* Ltd., was setup in 1950 with an authorised capital of Rs. 10 crores. The management was taken over by the Government from the Scindias in 1956. It has a fleet of 8 ships and runs a

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regular cargo service in India-Japan and India-Australia routes and passenger-cum-cargo service on the India-Singapore and India-East Africa routes. It also runs India-Andamans Service. The total tonnage of Eastern Shipping Corporation at the end of 1959 was 69,602 G.R.T. The *Bharat Lines* have been regularly running in India-Persian Gulf route. So long the *India Steamship and Scindias* had concentrated on the U.K.-Continent trade ; on July 1, 1958 Scindias inaugurated India-U.S. cargo service, which will be maintained with four newly built fast vessels. The *Western Shipping Corporation* registered in June 1956 with an authorised capital of Rs. 10 crores operated on the India-Persian Gulf, India-Red Sea, India Poland and India-Soviet routes.The total tonnage of Western Shipping Corporation was 31,400 G.R.T.

Tankers—A beginning has been made in acquiring a tanker fleet by the acquisition of two tankers—one in the public sector and the other in the private.

CONFERENCE LINES AND INDIAN SHIPPING LINES—When after Indian independence Indian entered into overseas trade, they had to struggle very hard to secure equal position with foreign shipping companies. It should be noted that a shipping company is not at liberty to ply its ships wherever it chooses. There are *Shipping Conferences* for different trades to which Indian Shipping Companies must be full members before they can participate in the foreign trade. The foreign companies who entirely control these Conferences at first blocked the way of Indian Shipping for entering these Conferences. But after prolonged struggle, Indian Shipping Companies had been admitted into Conference whereby they are enabled to operate on the trade freely. Two Indian Lines which are members of the Liner Conference governing the trade between India and U.K./continent, are plying in this trade.

Five Indian Companies are now participating in the overseas trades. The following are the main overseas Indian Shipping Lines —(1) *Scindia Steam Navigation Company* owns along with its subsidiaries about 40 p.c. of total Indian tonnage and operates the largest number of ships both in the coastal and overseas trades of the country. The Company today owns 47 vessels of which 22 are employed in the overseas trades and 25 in the coastal and also employs several chartered ships to meet the requirements of trade. The overseas trades covered are : India-U.K./continent, India-U.S.A., India U.S.S.R. (Black sea ports) and India-West Africa/Mediteranean (2) *Bombay Steam Navigation Co.*, owns six passenger ships plying on the Konkan Coast. It is subsidiary to Scindia Company. (3) *Kamal Shipping Company* is also a subsidiary of Scindias. (4) *India Steamship Company* of Calcutta is the second largest shipping company of India. Its fleet consists of 16 vessels. (5) *Great Eastern Shipping Co.*, operates six ships in the tramp trades and ten in the coastal trade including a tanker which has been chartered to the Stanvac Refinery. (6) *Bharat Line* operates eleven ships in the coastal, Burma and Persian Gulf trades. (7) *Malabar Steamship Co.* has two ships operating Persian Gulf trades. (8) *New Dholera Steamship Co.* (9) *Eastern Shipping*

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Corporation is the first of the two public sector companies. The Company has Australia, Far Eastern routes. (10) *Western Shipping Corporation.* This is second of the public sector companies owned by the Government. Its fleet consists only of a single tanker chartered by the Burma-Shell Co. The Corporation has since acquired three more ships—two modern cargo vessels and a new tanker which has been chartered by Caltex. These Conference Lines cover trade between (1) India and U.K., (2) India and U.S.A. and North Atlantic Ports, (3) India and Australia, (4) India and the Continent. The oldest and the most established of these Conferences is the India-U.K. Conference.

MERCHANT NAVY TRAINING—A *Merchant Navy Training Board* has been established in 1959 with the Minister of Shipping as President to consider all matters pertaining to the training of Merchant Navy Officers, ratings and other sea-going personnel and to recommend from time to time all such measures as may be necessary for the building up of an adequate, efficient and devoted merchant navy personnel. The Board is an advisory body

Following are the training centres—(1) *T. S. Dufferin* (Pre-sea Training Institution for Deck Officers) (2) *Directorate of Marine Engineering Training and Marine Engineering College,* Calcutta (Pre-Sea Training Institution for Marine Engineers) (3) *Nautical and Engineering College, Bombay* (Institution for Deck and Engineer Officer).

Preliminary Courses for extra Master and Extra first class Engineer's Certificates—As a first step towards the ustimate objective of conducting examinations for 'extra' certificates in India preparatory classes have been started. For Engineering Officers, the classes are being conducted in the D. M. & T. Calcutta and those for nautical officers are being held in the Nautical Engineering College, Bombay.

Recruitment of Seamen—Seamen's Employment were set up at Bombay and Calcutta in 1954 and 1955 respectively, for regulating the supply of seamen on foreign going ships on the principle of rotation.

Rating Training Establishments—Three Rating Training Establishments, *viz.,* Trainingship *Bhadra,* Calcutta, Trainingship *Mekhala* Visakhapatnam and Trainingship *Navlakhi* train seamen for employment both in the engine room and deck sides.

SHIP BUILDING & REPAIRS—The idea of reviving ship building and establishing a modern ship building yard in India was first mooted out by the Scindia Steam Navigation Company Ltd., in 1919. During the World War II, Scindias pioneered the project for establishing a ship building yard in India. In June 1941 the foundation of the shipyard was laid at Visakhapatnam. The keel of the first ocean-going vessel of 8,000 tonner steamship *Jala Usha* was laid in June 1946 and it was launched in March 1948. Recognising the national importance of the industry the Government of India took over the shipyard in March, 1952. The shipyard is now owned and operated by a Government-sponsored company, the *Hindustan Shipyard Private Limited* in which two-thirds

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of the capital is held by the Government of India and the remaining one-third by the Scindia Steam Navigation Company Ltd. The shipyard has so far delivered 23 ocean-going ships and 2 small crafts, in addition to mooring vessels, of an aggregate gross registered tonnage of 1,11,600.

There is a great need to expand ship-repair facilities at the Indian ports in view of the developing merchant shipping in India and the increasing number of ships visiting Indian ports. The *Ship Repairs Committee* was appointed by the Government in 1959 which stressed the responsibility of Port authorities in this matter and urged among other things, the establishment of well-organised workshops in waterfront, provision for suitable repair berths in protected waters, better utilization of the dry docks in Visakhapatnam and Cochin.

Second Shipyard—The most important development in the field of shipbuilding in this country has been the decision of the Government of India to establish a second shipbuilding yard. A yard will be established at Cochin, a site considered as most suitable by the U. K. Shipyard Mission. The Government decision is subject to the results of further investigation into soil conditions being found satisfactory.

LIGHTHOUSES AND LIGHTSHIPS—The Department of Lighthouses and Lightships is a self-supporting department and its accounts are maintained on a commercial basis. The revenue of the Department is derived from the light dues levied on shipping under the provision of the Indian Lighthouse Act, 1927. The Department of Lighthouses and Lightships is administered in association with a Central Advisory Committee for Lighthouses. A training centre to train young men for the specialised requirements of the Department has been started in Calcutta in January, 1960.

TRAFIC POSITION OF MAJOR PORTS

	Imports (tons)	*Exports (tons)*	*Ships No.*	*Entered gross tonnage*
Calcutta				
1957-58 ..	5,515,762	4,640,579	1593	10,103,581
1958-59 ..	5,065,324	4,133,498	1742	11,143,167
1959-60 (Sept. 1959)	2,637,002	2,370,938	912	6,099,925
Bombay				
1957-58 ..	9,301,511	3,808,165	2840	15,942,044
1958-59 ..	8,418,327	3,333,274	2917	16,797,473
1959-60 (Sept. 1959)	4,584,911	1,767,570	1372	8,901,697
Madras				
1957-58 ..	2,002,938	672,851	950	6,025,054
1958-59 ..	1,737,399	702,709	1092	6,989,741
1959-60 (Sept. 1959)	948,927	459,231	613	3,969,521

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Visakhapatnam					
1957-58	..	1,145,894	1,346,884	.521	3,624,035
1958-59	..	1,332,772	1,171,402	511	3,776,754
1959-60	(Sept. 1959)	650,849	625,205	289	2,064,542
Cochin					
1957-58	..	1,404,278	395,593	1039	5,198,828
1958-59	..	1,333,934	445,879	1219	6,448,912
1959-60	(Sept. 1959)	714,027	228,868	879	4,558,985
Kandla					
1957-58	..	608,978	235,277	207	1,200,353
1958-59	..	882,317	187,863	257	1,541,956
1959-60	(Sept. 1959)	424,148	129,607	160	1,003,069

TOURISM IN INDIA

TOURIST ORGANISATION IN INDIA—Since 1949, considerable attention has been given to the development of tourist traffic in India, which is an important source of foreign exchange and a promoter of international understanding. A Tourist Traffic Branch was set up under the Ministry of Transport in 1949 and the first Regional Tourist offices were established in Bombay, Delhi, Calcutta and Madras in 1950 and 1951. Tourist Offices have also been since set up at Agra, Aurangabad, Banaras, Bangalore, Bhopal, Cochin, Darjeeling and Jaipur. The Department of Tourism is a branch of Ministry of Transport and Communications. The Department of Tourism also has offices in important cities abroad, such as New York, San Francisco, London, Paris, Frankfurt, Colombo and Melbourne.

With a view to providing more effective co-ordination at the Centre, the Government of India, in March 1958, created a separate Tourist Department in the Ministry of Transport and Communications for dealing exclusively with matters concerning Tourism in India. The Department of Tourism is under the charge of a Director-General, who is also *ex-officio* Joint Secretary to the Government of India and who has under him one Deputy Director-General and five Directors in charge of administration, publicity, planning and development, travel trade and inspection.

Advisory Bodies—To secure the co-ordination of all the interests, official and non-official, in the promotion of tourism, there is a chain of tourist advisory bodies. There are State Tourist Advisory Committees, Regional Tourist Advisory Committees at Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta and Madras and the Tourist Development Council at the Centre.

Tourist Development Council—has been established by the Government of India, the main function of which is to recommend measures necessary for the provision of tourist traffic to India and from one part of the country to other. It is the highest body charged with the function of advising and making recommendations to the

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Central and State Governments on all matters pertaining to the policies and programmes for promoting tourism.

Regional Advisory Committees—The jurisdiction of the four Regional Committees is given below. The functions of these Committees are more or less the same as those of the Tourist Development Council but on regional basis.

Delhi—Delhi, Punjab, U.P., Rajasthan, Parts of Madhya Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh.

Madras—Madras, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and Mysore.

Bombay—Bombay and Parts of Madhya Pradesh.

Calcutta—West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa and Assam.

Tourist Promotion Committee—was set up in December 1957 for co-ordinating and increasing the promotional activities consisting of the Cabinet Secretary and heads of the Departments of the Government of India whose functions impinge on tourist promotion.

INTERNATIONAL CONTACTS—India is a member of the *International Union of Official Travel Organisations* which has set up a number of Regional and Technical Commission. India is also a member of the *South Asian Travel Commission*. The Department of Tourism has also been admitted as an *Associate Government Member of the Pacific Area Travel Association* (PATA). The Department of Tourism is a member of the *American Society of Travel Agents* (ASTA) since 1954 and the Federation Internationaldes Ageneesde Voyage (FIAV) since 1957. ASTA is perhaps the most influential non-official travel body.

PROMOTION OF TOURISM—Various steps are being taken to promote the tourism in India. The main points are detailed below—

(1) *Rest houses* built by the State Governments are primarily meant for officials and V. I. P.'s. These Governments are being persuaded to open such rest houses for use by the tourists.

(2) *Simplification of frontier formalities*—Important steps are being taken for (*a*) the relaxation of baggage rules for tourists. (*b*) abolition of registration formalities for foreigners visiting India for a stay of 30 days or less (*c*) introduction of standard international form of the Embarkation/Disembarkation cards with a few minor modifications (*d*) improvements in the procedure for clearance of passengers through Police, Health and Customs and for handling of unaccompanied or mishandled baggage at the three international airports in India, *viz.*, Dum Dum, Santa Cruz and Palam (*e*) grant of triple entry visas for tourists to enable them to make short visits from India to one or more neighbouring countries, *viz.*, Ceylon, Nepal and Pakistan.

(3) *Stimulation of Tourist Traffic to Kashmir*—Special measures have been taken with the collaboration of the Kashmir Government, Railway authorities and Airlines concerned to stimulate tourist traffic to Kashmir. Kashmir Entry Permit has now been abolished.

(4) *Hotels*—It has been decided, in consultation with the Hotel industry to classify hotels capable of catering to foreign tourists on the basis of the internationally accepted Star System. The Industrial Finance Corporation of India has since agreed to

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entertain loan applications without floor limit from hotels which are constituted either as Public Limited Companies or Cooperative Societies. Hotels have been requested to make special efforts to provide Indian food and entertainment to their clientele.

(5) *Travel Trade*—Since travel trade plays a vital role in travel promotion, a close liaison is maintained by the Tourist Department with the trade in order to supplement each other's efforts in promoting tourism in the country.

(6) *Tourist Coupon System*—To ease acute shortage of alcoholic drinks, camera films and tobacco due to import restrictions, the Economic Affairs Department have now allocated foreign exchange worth Rs. 5 lakhs for the import of the above mentioned items. Ad-hoc licences worth Rs. 4,24,000 for the import of alcoholic drinks, camera films and tobacco products have been issued to selected dealers of important places. The tourist coupons are distributed among the foreign bonafide tourists who will be entitled to purchase the commodities.

(7) *Visit of travel agents*—With a view to promoting tourist traffic to India in the travel markets abroad, several familiarisation tours in India of important travel agents from foreign countries are being sponsored.

(8) *Guide Training Courses*—was introduced five years ago Trained guides are now available at important tourist centres like Bombay, Delhi, Calcutta, Madras, Agra, Banaras and Jaipur.

(9) *Staff Training School*—To enable the foreign tourists to obtain correct and helpful information and to satisfy the couriosity of the foreign tourists and to solve their problems intelligently, a Staff Training School, on a modest scale has been set up by the Tourist Department.

(10) *Publicity*—The Department of Tourism has brought out a variety of literature which includes folders, brochures, city maps, regional maps, guide books, picture postcards, etc.

TOURISM IN THIRD YEAR PLAN—The Third Year Plan has allocated Rs. 5 crores for promotion of tourism.

NON-OFFICIAL TOURIST PROMOTION BODIES—(1) *The Travel Agents' Association of India.*
(2) *Shikar Agents.*
(3) *All India Hoteliers' Convention.*
(4) *Indian Travel and Tourist Industry's Council.*

TOURIST STATISTICS—The number of foreign tourists visiting India are as follows—

1951	..	20,000	1956 (Ex. Pakistanis)		68,880
1952	..	25,448	1957	„ ..	80,544
1953	..	28,060	1958	„ ..	92,202
1954	..	39,333	1959	„ ..	1,09,466
1955	..	43,645			

Nationalities	1957	1958
U.S.A. ..	16,029	18,032
U.K. ..	14,359	14,831
Ceylon ..	12,678	13,513

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Burma	..	5,010	3,647
Germany	..	2,607	2,967
France	..	1,995	2,046
Afghanistan	..	1,629	1,652
China	..	1,130	1,134
Japan	..	1,795	1,786
Canada	..	1,053	1,320
Russia	..	1,478	1,191
Others	..	20,781	30,083
		80,544	92,202
Pakistanis	..	..	5,17,952
Tibetans	..	..	8,042

INDIAN POSTS & TELEGRAPHS

EARLY HISTORY—The first British postal system was introduced in 1766 by Lord Clive, but this was used mainly for official purposes. During the administration of Warren Hastings, the posts were made available to the public for the first time and a regular organisation was set up in 1774 by Lord Dalhousie who created an Imperial System of post offices. He reduced the rates for carriages of letters and introduced postage stamps. Act 17 of 1837 is the earliest enactment, establishing a public service in India. The Act 17 of 1854 is a landmark in the history of postal system in India, for the entire department was placed under Director-General and uniform rates were fixed for all India. The first issue of postal stamps was made in India in Sind in 1825. They were of three kinds—(*a*) design embossed on white paper without colour (*b*) blue-embossed on white paper (*c*) design embossed on vermillion wafers. The basis of authority of the existing postal system in India is Act 6 of 1898.

The honour of laying the first experimental telegraph line from Calcutta to Diamond Harbour in 1839 goes to Dr. William B. O. Shanghnessy, professor of chemistry, Calcutta Medical College. It was then the longest telegraph line in the world—21 miles with a 7,000 feet river-crossing.

But it was not 12 years later than Octobed 1951, to be precise, that the first official telegraph line was opened for traffic between Calcutta and Diamond Harbour. The construction of long distance overhead telegraph line began in Nov. 1853 between Calcutta and Agra. The first telegraph message was sent over the circuit on March 24, 1854. Later on, this line was extended to Bombay on one side and to Peshawar on the other. Telegraph circuits were gradually extended to all parts of India till they reached 14,900 miles of wire in March 1867. Today the total mileage of overhead wires is over 8,00,000.

THE POSTAL SYSTEM—The Posts & Telegraphs Department is under the Ministry of Transport and Communications, whose con-

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trol is vested with the Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, who is assisted by a Posts and Telegraphs Board under his chairmanship. The other members of the Board are the Chief Engineer, the senior Deputy Director-General and the Joint Secretary, Ministry of Finance (Communications Division). The Chief Engineer is the technical adviser to the Director-General on tele-communication matters, while the Senior Deputy Director-General undertakes a similar function in regard to postal and R. M. S. matters. The Department is responsible for postal, telegraph, telephone and wireless communications. In addition, it undertakes the management of P.O. Savings Bank, National Savings Certificates, Postal Life Insurance and collection of Broadcast Receiver Licence fees.

The Posts and Telegraphs organisation functions as a commercial-cum-utility department, but unlike Railways, its finances have not been separated from the general revenues of the Central Government. The working expenses as well as the interests on the capital invested in the service are deducted from the gross receipts. Out of the surplus, an outright contribution is made to the general revenues and the rest is maintained to the credit of the Department. The Department, however, reserves a rebate on such accumulated surpluses.

Posts and Telegraphs Board—The new Posts and Telegraphs Board has been established in December 1959. The Board has not only all administrative powers at present exercised by the Ministry of Communications, but also has powers in matters of internal finance upto a limit of Rs. 50 lakhs. The Board consists of a Chairman, six members—one each for finance, posts, administration, tele-communication traffic, maintenance and operations, tele-communication planning, development and workshops, and banking and insurance.

Territorial Units—The Department Posts and Telegraphs functions through 13 territorial units—12 Posts and Telegraph circles and one postal circle for Delhi. There are four telephone districts in the cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Delhi and 21 other administrative units on a functional basis. The Department works as a commercial-cum-utlity service and makes over a part of its surplus earnings as a contribution to the general revenues.

The administration of the Department vests in the Posts and and Telegraphs Board which has been recently reconstituted with enhanced financial and administrative powers.

P. & T. Circles	*Jurisdiction*
1. Postmaster-General, West Bengal ..	West Bengal, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Sikkim.
2. Postmaster-General, Bihar	Bihar.
3. Postmaster-General, U. P.	Uttar Pradesh.
4. Postmaster-General, Punjab	Punjab, Himachal Pradesh, PEPSU, Bilaspur, Jammu & Kashmir, Delhi (Telegraphs only).
5. Postmaster-General, Bombay	Bombay, Saurashtra and Kutch. Madras, Mysore, Travancore-

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6.	Postmaster-General, Madras	Cochin, Coorg, Hyderabad (which is a sub-circle under a Director).
7.	Postmaster-General, Central Circle	M. P., Vindhya Pradesh. Rajasthan, Madhya Bharat Bhopal and Ajmer.
8.	Director of Posts & Telegraphs, Andhra ..	Andhra.
9.	Director of Posts and Telegraphs, Assam ..	Assam, Manipur and Tripura.
10.	Director of Posts and Telegraphs, Orissa ..	Orissa.
11.	Director of Postal Services, Delhi	Delhi (postal only).
12.	Director of Postal Services, Hyderabad ..	Hyderabad (sub-circle).
13.	General Manager, Telephones, Calcutta District	Calcutta City.
14.	General Manager, Telephones, Bombay District	Bombay City.
15.	Dist. Manager, Telephones, Delhi District ..	Delhi & New Delhi.
16.	General Manager Telephone District ..	Madras City.

RESEARCH AND POSTAL EDUCATION—The P. & T. Training Centre had been opened at Saharanpur on April 1951 to give intensive practical training to the operative staff and to instil in them the qualities of discipline, courtesy, punctuality, regularity, cleanliness and a spirit of service to the public. The Tele-communication Research Centre had been set up in 1956, though functioning very recently.

PROGRESS OF POSTAL SYSTEM—The postal system was inaugurated in India in October, 1854. Posts and Telegraphs Department is the second largest State enterprise in India. Under the Second Plan, each group of villages with a population of 2,000 will have a post office within a radius of four miles. On April 1, 1953, a new policy for setting up post offices in rural areas was evolved ; it considered the criteria of population in groups of villages and distances from existing post offices.

The following are the notable achievements of the postal department—

(1) An *inland night airmail service* started in 1949 links up the principal cities of India, namely, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Delhi and Nagpur. Under the *All-up Scheme*, all inland letters, cards, post cards and money orders are normally carried by air without any air surcharge.

(2) *Direct Air Parcel Service with foreign countries* as in operation from India to all important countries.

(3) The total number of post offices in existance on 1959 was 64,993.

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(4) The facility of acceptance of cheques for deposit and with drawal is in effect from April, 1958.

(5) Every village with a minimum population of 500 receives a visit from the postman at least once a week.

(6) Urban Mobile Post Office Scheme is in operation at Nagpur, Madras, Delhi, Bombay and Calcutta.

TELEGRAPH SERVICE—The telegraph service in India celebrated its centenary in November, 1953. The policy of opening telesub-divisional headquarters is being implemented.

Indian telegraph is the oldest government-owned public utility in the world and it is the second largest employer in India. The number of telegraph offices (including licenced offices) in 1959 was 10,746. The telegraph channel mileage also increased from 3,30,110 to 3,58,000 upto December 30, 1958.

The Telegraph Service in India and other Indian languages—was introduced in 1949. This facility is now available in about 1,400 offices in the country. Telegrams can be sent in any Indian language, provided they are written in Devnagri script. Hindi teleprinters have also been introduced in some places.

Printogram Service—has been introduced on 1st March, 1956 which is designed to provide a direct teleprinter service between the subscriber and the telegraph office, thus eliminating the intermediary messenger service. This system is now operating in Bombay.

A new class of telegram, known as *flash message*, has been introduced on April, 1947 for the Press. These telegrams receive a higher priority. Another class of telegram, known as *Human Life telegram*, also receives priority in transmission over all express telegrams in case of accidents, serious illness or death of a person.

Phototelegrams are accepted for the U.K., U.S.A., Canada, Egypt, Australia, South Africa, Finland, Sweden, Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Switzerland, San Francisco, Norway, China, Japan, U.S.S.R. and France at special rates.

Telegrams to follow has been introduced in case of foreign telegrams, which enables the sender who is not quite sure about the exact place at which the addressee will be found, to give various addressess at which the addressee will be found, to give various addressess at which the telegram is to be successively presented.

De Lux telegram has been re-introduced in foreign countries.

TELEPHONES—Only five years after the invention of telephone by Bell in 1876, India had a 50-line telephone exchange in Calcutta in 1881. Though India was almost one of the first countries in the world to have a telephone exchange, Calcutta was the first place to have it. Calcutta has the largest number of telephones in any single city in India. India has today only 7 telephones per thousand population as against 310 in U.S.A. Licences were granted to a private company (known as Oriental Telephone Co.,) for the establishment of exchanges at Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi, Madras and Rangoon. All these lines, however, were taken up by the Government in 1942. The first automatic telephone was installed in India at Simla with 700 lines in 1913. To facilitate telephone expansion "*own your telephone*" scheme was introduced in 1949. Under this scheme, a sum

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of Rs. 2,500 in Bombay and Calcuta and Rs. 2,000 in other places is realised in advance from the subscriber for a telephone connection for 20 years. The maintenance charge is Rs. 2 per month. *Own your Exchange* was introduced in 1950. Under this scheme, the Department undertakes to open a 50-line exchange if institutions, firms or individuals advance a loan of Rs. 50,000 at 2¾ per cent. interest per annum. This loan is repayable after 20 years. The total number of telephones upto 1958-59 was 3,78,000. *Message rate system*—under this system a subscriber pays for every call that he makes plus a fixed monthly rental. The number of telephone exchanges was 6,714.
exchanges was 6,714.

Tele-communication Research Centre—A research organisation has been set up in 1955-56, which has undertaken number of works and has started functioning with a small staff.

Technical Training—For imparting technical training to the officers and staff of the telephone, telegraph and wireless branches of the Department, the Department has set up fully equipped technical training institution at Jabalpur.

Telephone Industry—The Indian Telephone Industries (Private) Ltd., Bangalore, owned jointly by the Government of India, Government of Mysore and the Automatic Telephone and Electric Company Ltd. of England, manufacture telephones, automatic telephone lines and various types of carrier equipments.

Wireless—In addition to telegraph and telephone facilities, India has a wireless communication system, which serves several useful purposes. Wireless stations maintain contact between fixed points as a stand-by to telegraph system, in case of break-down of the latter. Stations at coastal places maintain contact with ships at sea and also aircraft flying over the sea. Such stations have been established at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and also at some minor ports. Meteriological stations exchange weather data with ships and also with other countries. Monitoring stations have been established at Jabalpur, Calcutta, Delhi and Bombay.

OVERSEAS COMMUNICATIONS SERVICE—The Overseas Communications Service is responsible for the working of radio-telegraph, radio-telephone and radio-photo services between India and other countries. These services have four gateway centres at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, and Madras for handling international communication. Since independence, there has been phenomenal increase in the external radio communication services between India and foreign countries. The first foreign electrical communication between India and other countries was established by an undersea cable connecting Bombay with London. In 1927 first radio telegraph link was opened between Bombay and London. The private Company in India (*Overseas Communications Service*) was nationalised in January 1947. It now functions under a Director-General with two main branches (Traffic and Engineering) and four gateway centres at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras.

This Service has now 57 direct radio services which link India with foreign countries.

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The Overseas Communications Service is a separate department headed by a Director-General ; Overseas Communications Service is under the Ministry of Communications.

Its functions are : provision, operation and development of all facilities for communications between India and outside world.

Following classes of services are carried out by the Overseas Communications Service—

(1) Radio-photo service.
(2) Radio Telegraph service.
(3) Radio-telephone service.
(4) Press news cast service.
(5) Submarine Cable Telegraph service.
(6) Wireless monitoring service at Bangalore, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Jabalpur.
(7) Inland photo-telegram service was inaugurated for the first time between Bombay and Delhi on January 26, 1955.

POST & TELEGRAPH STATISTICS

Postal Statistics	1958-59
No. of Post offices	64,993
Mileage of surface mail routes	2,86,345
Mileage of airmail routes	21,075
No. of postal articles (*crores*)	259.6
No. of insured articles (*lakhs*)	44.5
Money orders (*crores*)	7.3
Postal revenue (*crores of Rs.*)	37.87

Telegraph Satistics	1958-59
No. of telegraph offices	10,746
No. of telegraphs (lakhs)	3,43
Mileage of overhead wires	9,97,522
Mileage of underground cable conductors	14,68,321
Carrier and VFT channels (*in miles*)	6,49,429
Telegraph revenue (crores of Rs.)	8.26

Telephones

No. of telephones	3,78,000
No. of exchanges	6,714
No. of trunk calls (*in lakhs*)	264
Telephone revenue (*crores of Rs.*)	20.0

POSTAL LANDMARKS

1825—1st. Indian postage stamp issued at Karachi for Sind only.

1830—First overland post between England and India established when steamer '*Hugh Lindsay*' made the first voyage from Bombay to Suez.

1840—P. & O. obtained charter for conveyance of mails between London and Suez *en route* to India.

1851—First Govt. Telegraph line opened between Calcutta and Diamond Harbour.

1854—1st. postage stamp on all India basis issued on 1st October.

1865—First telegraph line opened between England and India, 27 Jan. 1865.

1870—G. P. O. Calcutta was opened and occupies the site of the old fort.

1871—V. P. system established.

1877—V. P. system started.

1880—M. O. system introduced.

1885—Postal Savings Bank started.

1888—M. O. system started.

1911—First official Air Mail flight on 18th February, when 6,500 letters were flown from Allahabad to Naini Junction.

1929—U. K. India Air Mail Service started, 4th April, 1929.

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1931—New Delhi inauguration commemoration stamp issued.

1935—Silver Jubilee of King George VI Stamp first issued showing various modes of transport of mails.

1942—Airgraph Service started, February, 2, 1942.

1943—Photo Telegram Service introduced.

1946—Two Pice Post Card re-introduced on 1st July.

1947—Govt. of India purchased Overseas Telecommunications Service, Jan. 1, 1947.

1949—Telegraph Transmission in Hindi in Devnagri script introduced in Jan. 1949.

1954—Indian Postage Stamp Centenary celebration on 1st Oct. and International Postal-cum-Philatelic Exhibition.

1957—Postage Stamps and postage stationery in decimal coinage issued on 1st April, 1957.

NEW POSTAGE STAMPS SINCE INDEPENDENCE

1947—Issue of three Jai Hind stamps commemorating Indian Indepen dence.

1948—Commemoration stamp for the first flight of India's first external air service from Bombay to London.

1948—A set of Gandhi memorial stamps in four values on the 1st anniversary of India's Independence (15th August, 1948).

1949—A set of stamps for 75th anniversary of Universal Postal Union.

1949—New stamps representing the illustrations of Ajanta, Trimurti, Konark Horse, Sanchi Stups, Kandaraya Mahadeva Temple and Bhuvaneswar Temple, Buddha Gaya Temple, Tomb of Adil Shah of Bijapur, Amritsar Golden Temple, Tower of Chittoragraph, Red Fort of Delhi, Taj Mahal of Agra, Qutab Minar of Delhi, etc., on Independence Day.

1950—Independence stamp commemorating the coming into operation India's new Constitution (26th Jan.).

1951—One stamp representing a pair of Stegoden Ganesa, an extinct species of modern Indian elephant for the centenary of Geological Survey of India.

1951—Issue of two stamps depicting a torch against the southern coast-line of Asia on the occasion of first Asian Games in New Delhi, March 4, 1951.

1952—A new series of stamps bearing the portraits of saints and poets of India.

1953—Two Everest conquest commemoration stamps (2nd Oct.).

1953—One stamp issued to commemorate Indian Railway centenary on 16th April.

1953—Two stamps on the centenary of Indian Telegraphs on 1st Nov., 1953.

1954—A set of four stamps commemorating centenary of the 1st issue of Indian stamp.

1954—2-anna stamp commemorating U.N. Day (24th Oct.).

1954—2-anna stamp on the occasion of 4th World Forestry Congress at Dehra Dun (Dec.).

1955—Five-Year Plan series of postage stamps on 26th Jan.

1956—Two Buddha Jayanti stamps, of two annas and fourteen annas issued on 24th May.

—Tilak centenary stamp on 23rd July.

1957—Two stamps to commemorate the centenary of India's first struggle for freedom (*Sepoy Mutiny*).

1957—One stamp on the opening of the 19th International Red Cross Conference at Delhi with picture of Henri Dunant, founder of the Red Cross.

A set of three postage stamps for Children's Day.

One stamp or the 50th year of steel industry in India.

Three different stamps for the centenary year of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras Universities.

1958—New postage stamp valued at 8 nP.

Postage stamp for Children's Play (Nov. 14), 15 nP.

—Birth centenary stamp of Dr. D. K. Karve.

—Bipin Pal birth centenary stamp on 7th Nov. 15 nP.

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—Children's Day stamp (15 nP.).

—J. C. Bose birth centenary stamp.

—I.A.F. Silver Jubillee stamp.

—India 1958 Exhibition stamp.

1959—Postage stamp on June 15, on the 40th anniversary of I.L.O.; special postage stamp (15 nP.) to commemorate World Agricultural Fair at Delhi, 30th Dec.

—Sir Jamshetji Gijeebhoy centenary stamp (15 nP.).

1960—The postage stamp in honour of Poet Kalidas, June 22 ; postage stamp in honour of Tamil Poet Bharati ; postage stamp in honour of Siant Thiruvallavar, Feb. 15 : special stamp (15 nP.) in honour of Dr. M. Visveevaraya ; Children's day stamp.

INDIAN INDUSTRY

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP—On the 'Industries' side, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry's activities includes the encouragement and ordered development of large and small-scale industries in the private and public sectors, assistance to industries, development and control of plantation industries and active promotion of overall industrilisation. The Ministry also exercise control over production distribution and prices of certain essential commodities, administration of the Companies Act and regulation of "Forward Trading."

The executive work of the entire Ministry is carried on by the several attached organisations which are as follows—

(1) *Development Wing, New Delhi*—This is under the charge of the two senior industrial advisers assisted by a number of industrial advisers and other technical officers. The primary function of this office is to assist and advise the Ministry in formulating and executing plans relating to control, promotion and regulation of industries whose development will strengthen the country's economy.

(2) *Office of the Chief Controller of Imports and Exports, New Delhi*—It is responsible for the execution of the Government's policies relating to import and export control. Branch offices are functioning in Amritsar, Bombay, Calcutta, Ernakulam, Madras, New Delhi, Pondicherry, Rajkot, Shillong, Visakhapatnam and Kandla.

(3) *Office of the Textile Commissioner, Bombay*—This office is responsible for the development and regulation of all textile industries other than the jute and sericulture industries.

(4) *Office of the Development Commissioner for Small Scale Industries, New Delhi*—is responsible for development and fostering of small scale industries.

(5) *Office of the Economic Adviser, New Delhi*—renders technical advice to the Ministry on all issues of economic nature. It compiles the official index number of prices in India, conducts research on prices and tariffs, employment, foreign trade and industries, etc.

(6) *Tariff Commission, Bombay*—is a statutory body and

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inquires into claims for protection to industries as well as other allied matters referred to it by the Central Government. It also reviews the manner in which protection granted to industries is operated.

(7) *Office of the Salt Commissioner, Jaipur*—It is an attached office with five regional offices at Sambhar, Bombay, Madras, Calcutta and Mandi and is responsible for the administration of Salt Cess Act, quality control of salt, running of salt laboratories and model farms and Government salt factories ; it also arranges for the distribution of salt throughout the country in consultation with the State Governments, etc.

(8) *Office of the Director-General of Intelligence and Statistics* compiles and publishes statistics of India's foreign and inland trade. It is in charge of commercial intelligence work.

(9) *Forward Markets Commission, Bombay*—is a statutory body entrusted with the regulation of forward markets in pursuance of Forward Contracts (Regulation) Act, 1952.

(10) *Office of the Controller General of Patents, Designs and Trade Marks, Bombay*—This office is responsible for administering Trade Marks Act, 1958 and also Patents and Designs Act 1911. As per the new Act, the Government has established the Trade Marks Registry with its head-office at Bombay and branch offices at Calcutta, Delhi and Madras.

(11) *Indian Standards Institution, New Delhi*—This is a quasi-Governmeet Institution which is responsible for drawing up standards for the products of Indian industries.

(12) *Office of the Custodian of Enemy Property, Bombay*—This office is responsible for the administration and disposal of assets in India of former enemy countries.

(13) *The Khadi and Village Commission, Bombay*—was established in pursuance of the Khadi and Village Industries Act 61 of 1956. The functions of the Commission are to plan, organise and implement programmes for the development of khadi and village industries.

(14) *All India Handicrafts Board, New Delhi*—The Board advise Government on measures to be taken for the development of handicrafts and assists State Governments in planning and executing development scheme.

(15) *The Central Silk Board*—was constituted as a statutory body in 1949. It is vested with the responsibility for looking after the development of sericulture and silk industry and coordinates development work in States. It also undertakes schemes of research, training of staff and development of special race of silk worms.

(16) *Central Sericultural Research Station, West Bengal*—is located at Berhampore (West Bengal). It is responsible for research in the improvement and development of the sericulture industry and cocoon production. A sub-station is located at Kalimpong.

(17) *The Tea Board, Calcutta*—The Tea Board administers the Tea Act of 1953 and is concerned with measures for the development of the tea industry in India including the control of the cultivation of tea in and of the export of tea from India and propaganda for increased consumption of tea.

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(18) *The Coffee Board, Bombay*—is a statutory Board and its main function is the development of coffee industry.

(19) *Rubber Board, Kottayam*—is responsible for the development of the rubber industry.

(20) *The Coir Board, Ernakulam*—was established under the Coir Industry Act of 1953 for the development of coir industry.

(21) *The All India Handloom Board, Bombay*—was constituted in 1952. It advises Government generally on the problems of the handloom industry, examines schemes for the improvement and development of industry, and makes recommendations for financial assistance for such schemes.

(22) *The Jute Commissioner, Calcutta*—This office was set up in 1958 to look after the development of the jute mill industry in India. The Jute Commissioner also performs the functions of the Jute Controller for the administration of Jute Textile (Control) Order, 1956.

STATE UNDERTAKINGS—The following State undertakings are functioning under the control of this Ministry—

(*a*) *Companies whose main object is to promote industrial development but which are not themselves directly responsible for production*—(1) National Industrial Development Corporation (2) National Small Industries Corporation (3) Indian Handicrafts Development Corporation.

(*b*) *Industrial Projects which are in construction stage*—(1) Hindustan Chemical and Fertilisers Ltd. (2) Heavy Electricals Ltd. (3) Heavy Engineering Corporation Ltd.

(*c*) *Industrial Projects in production*—(1) Sindri Fertilisers and Chemicals (2) Hindustan Machine Tools (3) Hindustan Cables (4) Hindustan Insecticides at Delhi and Alwaye (5) Hindustan Antibiotics (6) National Instruments (7) Nahan Foundry (8) Hindustn Salt Co. (9)* Praga Tools Corporation (10)* National Newsprint and Paper Mills.

(*d*) *Trade Promotion*—(1) State Trading Corporation of India (2) Export Risks Insurance Corporation.

INDUSTRIAL POLICY OF THE GOVERNMENT—The Industrial Policy of the Government of India was first promulgated in their Resolution on 6th April, 1948. This envisaged a mixed economy with an overall responsibility of the Government for the planned development of industries and their regulations in national interest. While it stated the right of the State to acquire an industrial undertaking in the public interest, it reserved the appropriate sphere for private enterprise. Industries were classified under three heads. First category included arms and ammunition, atomic energy, river valley projects and the railways, which are declared to be State monopolies. The second included coal, iron and steel, aircraft, telephones, telegraphs, wireless, shipbuilding, and mineral oils, which were to be the responsibility of the state. The existing private undertakings in these industries were, however, to continue for at least

*Majority of shares are held by the Government of India.

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ten years. In the third category was the rest of the industrial field which was left open to private enterprise. A fresh statement of industrial policy was announced by the Government on April 30, 1956, due to the acceptance of a socialistic pattern of society as the objective. Under this, the State can assume direct responsibility for the future development of industries over a wider area than before. Under the revised policy, 17 key industries, specified in Schedule A, are the exclusive responsibility of the State and twelve in the Schedule B of those which will be progressively State-owned. The remainder (not listed) will be left to the private sector. The statement promises private industrial undertaking "as much freedom as is consistent with the targets and objectives of the National Plan." It assures fair and non-discriminatory treatment in cases where both sectors exist in the same industry.

Schedule-A Industries—Arms and ammunition and allied items of defence equipment, atomic energy, iron and steel.

Heavy castings and forgings of iron and steel, heavy plant and machinery required for iron and steel production, for mining, for machine tool manufactures and for such other basic industries as may be specified by the Central Government ; heavy electrical plant, including large hydraulic and steam turbines.

Coal and lignite, mineral oils.

Mining of iron ore, manganese ore, chrome ore, gypsum, sulphur, gold and diamond ; mining and processing of copper, lead, zinc, tin, molybdenum and wolfram ; minerals specified in the schedule to the Atomic Energy (Control of Production and Use) Order, 1953.

Aircraft ; air transport, railway transport.

Shipbuilding ; telephones and telephone cables ; telegraph and wireless apparatus (excluding radio receiving sets) ; generation and distribution of electricity.

Schedule-B Industries—All other minerals except "minor minerals" as defined in Section 3 of the Minerals Concession Rules, 1949 : aluminium and other non-ferrous metals not included in Schedule A.

Machine tools, ferro alloys and tool steels.

Basic and intermediate products required by chemical industries, such as the manufacture of drugs, dyestuffs and plastics.

Anti-biotics and other essential drugs ; fertilizers, synthetic rubber ; carbonization of coal ; chemical pulp.

Road transport. Sea transport.

CONTROL OF INDUSTRIES—The industrial policy of the Government enunciated in 1948 and 1956 envisaged State regulation and control of industries. These powers of the Government had to be acquired by legislation. The first step in the direction was the amendment of the Constitution. The second step in this direction was passing of *Industries (Development and Regulation) Act* of 1951. Under this Act, all new and existing undertakings are to be licenced. The Government is authorised to examine the working of any industrial undertaking continued to be mismanaged and the Government is empowered to take over its management or control.

The Act also envisaged the establishment of a *Central Advisory Council* consisting of the representatives of industry, labour, con-

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sumers and primary producers to advise the Government on all matters concerning the development and regulation of industries. It also provides the setting up of *Development Councils* for individual industries.

Other important Act for control of industries is *Mines & Minerals (Regulation and Development) Act*, 1948 together with Mineral Concessions Rules and the Petroleum Concessions Rules framed under it. It empowers the Central Government to frame rules for regulating the terms and conditions of prospecting licences and mineral leases, the conservation and development of minerals and the modification of existing licences and leases on payment of compensation.

A *Licencing Committee* has also been set up to examine application for licences of industries.

A National Productivity Council has been set-up in February 1958 as an autonomous body to inculcate productivity consciousness in the country and apply the latest techniques of increasing productivity in industry by promoting the setting up of local productivity councils in industrial centres and of five regional productivity directorates manned by specialists. Five reginoal directorates have been established at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Kanpur and Bangalore. So far 30 local councils have been set-up.

INDUSTRIAL FINANCE—For the rapid industrial development of the country, the Government of India decided to setup special financial institutions for the provision of medium and long-term credit to industrial enterprise. In addition to Industrial Finance Corporations, a number of investment or development Corporations has been set-up in India either with direct or indirect participation by the State.

The Industrial Finance Corporation of India sarted in July, 1958 is the earliest of such institutions for loans to the industrial concerns of India. Its authorised share capital is Rs. 10 crores. Industrial concerns which cannot offer adequate security but deserve encouragement, may now receive loans from the Corporation if some guarantees are given by the Central or State governments, a scheduled bank or State Co-operative bank.

The State Financial Corporation Act of 1951 envisages the establishment of Industrial Finance Corporation in the States with a view to financing medium and small-scale industries which do not fall within the scope of All-India Industrial Finance Corporation. Under this Act, at present (1960) twelve State Finance Corporations are functioning. These twelve State Corporations have an aggregate authorised capital of Rs. 29 crores. It was, however, found out that Industrial Finance Corporation at the Centre and the State Finance Corporations in the States could not fully cope with the financial needs of industries in the private sector. Therefore the Government directly established the *National Industrial Development Corporation* in 1954. The Corporation is mainly conceived as an instrument of Government for securing a balanced and integrated development of industries in both public and private sectors and indirectly helped towards the setting up of the private

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concern known as *Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India*, and semi-public *National Small Industries Corporation* for financing and promoting small industries in India. The finances of the Corporation are contributed in the form of share capital, grants and loans. It renders useful service to small industrial units under various schemes. In June 1958, the *Refinance Corporation for Industries* was set-up by the Government as a private limited company. It would extend credit to medium-sized industrial units in the private sector through the agency of 15 Indian and foreign banks participating in the project. The details are given below—

The Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation was registered on January 6, 1955 with an authorised capital of Rs. 25 crores. The primary object of the Corporation is to assist industrial enterprise within the private sector of industry in India. Its purpose generally is to assist the creation, expansion and modernisation of such industrial enterprises, to encourage and promote the participation of private capital both internal and external of industrial investments. The Corporation will provide finance by way of long and medium-term loans or participating in the equity capital of industry or guarantee loans for other private investment sources.

Industrial Estates—Industrial Estates are developed on planned sites for small industries. It has two fold objects : It seeks to remove small industrial units from crowded urban areas and thus reduce the pressure on the latter and secondly it seeks to provide small units with factory space and common facilities for efficient working. The entire cost is advanced as loans by the Central Government to State Governments who acquire and develop land, construct roads and put up factory buildings. It has been decided to set up 97 Industrial Estates ; of these 94 Estates have already been sanctioned and only three are yet to be sanctioned. 36 Industrial Estates have been completed and 29 are in operation. About 400 factories are working in these 29 Estates.

State Trading Corporation was set up in May, 1956 as a private limited Company with an authorised capital of Rs. one crore. The objectives of the Corporation are to organise exports from and imports into India of such goods and commodities as the Corporation from time to time may determine and to do all such other things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above objects. The Corporation mainly seeks out opportunities to make its contribution towards the building up of the country's commerce with new markets and new sources of supply, providing facilities to augment exports, securing, wherever possible, improvement on terms of trade and economies in imports and arranging, to the extent practicable, for import and distribution of certain essential new materials at stable prices.

Indian Standards Institution—In 1947 Indian Standards Institution (ISI) was set up. The Indian Standards Institution has for its objects the preparation, promotion and general adoption at the national and international levels of standards relating to materials, commodities, structures, practices and operations. The Indian Standards Institution is the National Standards Organisation for India

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similar to the National Standards bodies in other countries, such as British Standards Institution in the United Kingdom. An important step taken by the ISI to aid industrialists to produce quality goods and for consumers to recognise them, is the establishment of ISI Certification Marks Division which issues licences to manufacturers to stamp their goods with a standard mark, certifying that the goods conform to the relevant Indian standard. Under the I.S.I. Certification Marks Act 1952, I.S.I. has been issuing licences to manufactures for marking their goods with I.S.I. Certification Marks, provided they rigidly conform to relevant Indian Standards. The total number of licences granted upto the end of 1959 is 154.

Indian Handicrafts Development Corporation—was set up as a private limited Company in April, 1958 with the main objects of undertaking commercial activity for handicrafts in an effective and co-ordinated manner for the whole country with special emphasis on export promotion. The finances of the Corporation are contributed by the Government in the from of share capital, loans and grants.

COMMITTEES & COUNCILS—There are several committees and councils under this Ministry for the development of industry, such as—

Central Advisory Council of Industries—It was constituted under the Industries (Development and Regulations) Act, 1951. There is a *Standing Committee of the Central Advisory Council of Industries.*

Development Councils—have been set up for the following industries—(*i*) heavy chemicals (*ii*) internal combustion engines and power-driven pumps and air compressos (*iii*) bicyles, sewing machines and instruments (*iv*) sugar (*v*) light electrical (*vi*) heavy electrical (*vii*) drugs, dyes and intermediates (*viii*) alkalis and allied industries (*ix*) woollen textiles (*x*) art silk textiles (*xi*) machine tools (*xii*) non-ferrous metals (*xiii*) oil based and plastic industries (*xiv*) food processing (*xv*) alcohol and fermentations, (*xiv*) acids and fertilisers (*xvii*) automobiles, automobile ancillary industries and transport vehicles industries.

Industrial Panels—have been set up where industries are not sufficiently developed or advanced. They examine the various policies facing the industries.

National Productivity Council—was started in 1958 as an autonomous body with the object to inculcate productivity consiousness in the country and apply the latest techniques of increasing productivity in industry. The Council has established five Regional Productivity Directorates in the country manned by specialists for organising productivity training. It has already setup 34 local councils at various industrial centres in the country.

FOREIGN CAPITAL—The Government's policy in regard to the foreign capital was enunciated in the Industrial Policy Resolution of April, 1948 and in the Prime Minister's statement in the Constituent Assembly in 1949, which laid down—

(1) the participation of foreign capital and enterprise should be carefully regulated in the national interest, by ensuring that the major interest in ownership and effective control should,

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save in exceptional cases, always be in Indian hands and that the training of suitable Indian personnel for the purpose of eventually replacing foreign experts will be insisted upon in all such cases;

(2) there will be no discrimination between foreign and Indian undertakings in the application of general industrial policy;

(3) reasonable facilities will be given for the remittance of profits and repatriation of capital consistent with the foreign exchange position of the country;

(4) in the event of nationalisation, fair and equitable compensation would be paid.

For the rapid growth of industries, the Government of India have invited foreign resources in cases where sufficient capacity of the manufacture of a particular item does not exist in the country.

The Planning Commission has also recommended the inflow of foreign capital should be encouraged. With that end in view, it has recommended that Indian and foreign capital should collaborate in new ventures.

NATIONALISED INDUSTRIES—Government of India and the State Governments have set up a number of important industries as State enterprises. From the point of view of management, the existing State enterprises can, broadly speaking, be classified under three categories, namely (*a*) enterprises owned and managed by the Government Department, (*b*) enterprises owned and managed by public corporations and (*c*) enterprises owned by the Government wholly or in partnership with private agencies and managed as private limited companies. Railways, Posts and Telegraphs and Chittaranjan Locomotive works are the instances of State enterprise. The Airlines, D. V. C. and Shipping are run by public corporations, while most of the industrial enterprises proper are run by private limited companies.

1. **Sindri Fertilizers and Chemicals Ltd.**—*Sindri Fertilizer Factory* has been constructed at Sindri at a cost of about Rs. 28 crores. The Company has an authorised capital of Rs. 30 crores with Rs. 17 crores subscribed and paid up. It is so far one of the biggest fertilizer producing units in the East. The annual production target of the factory is 3,30,000-ton ammonium sulphate and this has been achieved.

2. **Hindustan Aircraft Ltd**—*Hindustan Aircraft Factory* was established at Bangalore by Government of India which owns a two-third share. Government of India and Mysore are the only two shareholders. It is now Government's instrument for manufacturing aircraft. In addition to the repair of I.A.F. aircraft, it also builds a trainer known as H.T.2. The Company has undertaken the assembly and manufacture of Vampire jet aircraft.

3 **Chittaranjan Locomotive Works**—For lessening the dependence of the Indian Railways upon foreign sources for locomotives, the Government have started at a cost of Rs. 15 crores a Locomotive Workshop at Chittaranjan (Mihijam). It is designed to produce 120 locomotives and 50 spare boilers per annum. The work was started early in 1948 and the first India-made locomotive from assembled parts was produced in 1950 and named *Deshabandhu*.

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4. **National Instruments Ltd., Calcutta**—It was originally started as the Mathematical Instruments Office in 1830 for the repair and service of instruments used by the Survey of India. It was converted into a private limited company in 1957 under the name of National Instruments (P) Ltd. It produces 250 types of scientific and precision instruments. The factory is shortly to undertake the production of optical and opthalmic glass. In 1960 an agreement was signed between the Government of India and a Japanese firm of Tokio for technical collaboration in the manufacture of cameras.

5. **Integral Coach Factory, Perambur**—State-owned Integral Coach Factory at Perambur in the north-west of Madras went into production in October, 1955 for the manufacture of all steel light weight integral rail coaches.

6. **Hindustan Chemicals and Fertilizers Ltd.**—It is a fertilizer and heavy water project. The factory is expected to go into production shortly. It will be an integrated unit for the production of 2-lakh tons of ammonium nitrate fertiliser per annum and about 14 tons of heavy water for use by the Department of Atomic Energy.

* *

7. **Hindustan Antibiotics (Private) Ltd.**—To meet the increasing demand for penicillin in the country, the Government set up a factory at Pimpri (Bombay) with the help of UNICEF and WHO (now UNTAA). Production began in August 1955. The management of the factory vests in the *Hindustan Antibiotics Ltd.*, a State enterprise with an authorised capital of Rs. 40 million.

8. **Hindustan Housing Factory**—The Hindustan Housing Factory Ltd., was incorporated on January 27, 1953 as a private limited company with the Government of India and Basakha Singh-Wallenborg Ltd. The agreement with Basakha Singh-Wallenborg Ltd. was terminated and the factory had been taken over by the Government of India in August, 1955. The factory is now manufacturing transmission poles, street-light poles, industrial heavy beams, prefab. roofs, doors, windows, foam concrete and partition blocks.

9. **Nahan Foundry, Sirmur, Himachal Pradesh**—originally established in 1872 as a private organisation, came under the ownership and control of the Government of India in October, 1952. The Foundry manufactures mainly agricultural implements, such as, cane-crushers. It also produces sleepers for railways, and cast iron saddles and anchors for the Posts and Telegraphs Department.

10. **Eastern Shipping Corporation**—The Corporation has been formed for increasing India's overseas shipping. The estimated cost of the enterprise is Rs. 1.48 crores. 74 per cent of the subscribed capital is owned by the Government of India. Corporation has purchased two ships for a total cost of Rs. 44 lakhs. It is now engaged in the Indo-Australian trade.

11. **Praga Tools Corporation Ltd.**—was set up in 1948. In 1956, the then Government of Hyderabad who were Managing Agents of the Company requested the Government of India to take over the administration of the factory. The Government of India took over the factory. The Company manufactures machines tools, machine

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tool accessories, precision tools, auto and diesel parts, railway components, etc.

12. **Hindustan Machine Tools (P) Ltd.**—*Jalahalli, Bangalore.* The factory has been built up with the assistance of the firm of Oerlikons of Switzerland which is now the technical consultant of the Company. The Company went into production in 1954. The factory produces lathes, milling machines, radial drills, grinding machines. The Company signed a technical collaboration agreement in 1959 with a French firm for the production of centre height lathes. Another agreement has been signed with Clivette's of Italy for the manufacture of 16 types of cylindrical grinding machine. The Company now produces 90 types of diversified machine tools.

13. **Hindustan Cables Ltd**—The factory was started at Rupnarainpur in 1954, West Bengal, to meet the requirements of the Posts and Telegraphs Department. It manufactures telephone cables.

14. **Hindustan Shipyard**—The foundation stone of the Hindustan Shipyard at Visakhapatnam, was laid on June 21, 1941. The Government of India took over the Shipyard in March 1952, recognising the national importance of the industry. A new Government-sponsored company, the Hindustan Shipyard Private Ltd., in which two-thirds of the share-capital was held by the Government and the remaining one-third by the Scindia Steam Navigation Company was incorporated for this purpose. The shipyard is now equipped with four large slipways and adequate workshops and jetty. So far 24 ocean-going ships and 2 small crafts have been built here.

15. **Machine Tools Prototype Factory**—which was started at Ambarnath (near Bombay), in April, 1951 designs special type of tools and machines required for use by ordnance factories. This project forms a landmark in the development of the nation's defence industries. A novel feature of the factory is a training school attached to it which trains 100 skilled artisans every year. This factory meets to a considerable extent the need for the production of prototypes for the new defence equipment.

16. **Indian Telephone Industries Ltd.**—Under the name of Indian Telephone Industries Ltd., a telephone factory has been started at Bangalore by the Government of India. The Union Government holds 90 p.c. of the shares, and the remaining shares are held by the Government of Mysore and the Automatic Telephone & Electric Co. Ltd., of England. The factory is manufacturing all types of telephone equipment and long-distance carrier equipment.

17. **Hindustan Insecticides Ltd.**—is managing the Government owned DDT factories at Delhi and Alwaye. The Delhi factory is producing 1,400 tons of technical DDT per annum. It was established with the financial assistance from UNICEF in the shape of equipment valued at $ 6,20,000 and from WHO in the form of technical assistance amounting to $ 1,00,000. The Alwaye Factory with an annual capacity of 1,400 tons of technical DDT has been established by Government at a total cost of about Rs. 97.03 lakhs. It has already gone into production. Both the Delhi and the Alwaye factories are being managed by the Hindustan Insecticides (Private) Limited.

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18. **State Trading Corporation of India (Private) Ltd.**—was set up in May 1956 and its principal endeavour is to diversify and supplement country's foreign trade. It seeks out opportunities to make contribution in the building up of the country's commerce with markets and new sources of supply, provides facilities to augument exports, secures, whenever possible, improvement in terms of trade and economies in imports and arrange, to the extent practicable, for import and distribution of certain essential raw materials at stable prices. The authorised capital of the Company is Rs. 5 crores.

19. **Export Risks Insurance Corporation Ltd.**—The Company was registered as a private limited company in 1956. The authorised capital of the Company is Rs. 5 lakhs. It commenced its work on 14th October, 1957. The Corporation offers facilities to the exporters to insure risks arising in the course of export trade, which are not normally covered by the commercial insurance companies. It covers risks involved in export on credit terms.

20. **Indian Explosives Factory**—The Government of India entered into an agreement with Imperial Chemical Industries to set up a factory for the manufacture of India's requirements of industrial blasting explosives. The necessity for this has arisen on account of the development of the mining industry, as also the extension of irrigation works, road buildings, dams, power houses, coal mining and iron ore industries, the working of quarries, the building of railways, etc. Indian Explosives Ltd. is a public company in which the Government of India holds 20% of the equity capital and I.C.I. the remaining 80%. The authorised capital of the company is Rs. 4 crores. This factory was opened on the 5th Nov., 1958 at Gomia, district Hazaribagh, Bihar and the Company handle the distribution and sale in India of manufactured explosives and gives technical service to consumers.

21. **Bharat Electronics (P) Ltd.**—The Government of India registered on April 19, 1954 a company known as Bharat Electronics (Private) Limited to set up a large-scale industry for the manufacture of wireless and electronic equipments, primarily for the defence services and civil departments of the Government. The entire capital of Rs. 9 crores is provided by the Government of India. Jalahalli near Bangalore is the area where the factory has been started. The factory began production in December, 1955.

22. **Iron and Steel Projects**—The Iron & Steel Projects of the Government of India are under the united control of Hindustan Steel (Private) Ltd. (1) *Rourkela Steel Project*—An argeement was signed with Krupp-Demag Combine of Germany for financial and technical collaboration in the execution of 720,000 ton Rourkela Steel Plant in Orissa in 1953. Krupp-Demag was to give technical assistance and train Indian personnel. They were to invest in the capital of the Company. The Plant at Rourkela has been set up at a cost of Rs. 170 crores. (2) *Bhilai Steel Project*—An agreement was entered with the Soviet Government in February, 1955 for the erection of a steel plant at Bhilai in Madhya Pradesh for the setting up of a modern integrated Iron and Steel Plant with an initial capacity of 770,000 tons of saleable steel, and 3,00,000 tons of foundry grade

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pig iron per year. The total cost of plant has been estimated at Rs. 131 crores. (3) *Durgapur Steel Project*—The British Steel Consortium's Project for one-million steel plant at Durgapur, Bengal, was signed by the Government of India in March, 1956. The expected cost is about Rs. 138 crores. It will produce 7,90,000 tons of saleable steel and 3,50,000 tons of foundry grade pig iron per year. (4) The *Mysore Iron and Steel Works* which has been taken over by the Government of India is being expanded to produce 1,00,000 tons per year.

In Februry, 1959 the first blast furnaces of Bhilai and Rourkela were blown in. Three month later, these works produced first steel. The first Durgapur blast furnace was also commissioned in December, 1959.

23. **Lignite Factory**—A private limited company had been formed in 1956 under the name of *Neyveli Lignite Corporation (Private) Ltd.*, entirely financed by the Central Government for the production of lignite coal at Neyveli, South Arcot district in Madras. The integrated Neyveli lignite project envisages the mining of 35 lakh tons of lignite per annum to be used for (1) generation of power (2) production of carbonised briquttes, and production of urea.

24. **Oil India (Private) Ltd.**—was formed in January, 1958 for exploration and production of petroleum and crude oil (including natural gas) and for the construction of pipelines to the two refineries to be set up in the public sector in which Government of India have taken one-third share.

25. **Indian Refineries (Private) Ltd.**—had been started as a Government company with the authorised capital of Rs. 30 crores in August, 1958 for operating two new refineries, one in Nunmati (capacity 7½-lakh tons of crude petroleum)in Assam and the other at Barauni in Bihar (20-likh tons of crude petroleum). By an agreement Rumanian Government has offered to erect the refinery in Assam on long-term credit basis. Another agreement in Sept., 1959 with the USSR provides for that country's technical and financial assistance for Barauni refinery.

26. **Ashoka Hotels Ltd., New Delhi**—A public limited company which wanted to start a big hotel in New Delhi got certain assistance from the Government of India, but it could not raise the requisite finance. So ultimately in May 1956 the entire project was taken over by the Government of India which built a hotel known as Ashoka Hotel, that started functioning in October 1956.

27. **Heavy Electricals (Private) Ltd.**—The Heavy Electrical Factory at Bhopal, first of its kind in India, set up by the Government of India commenced production on 1st July, 1960. The biggest in Asia, the Bhopal factory will produce a variety of equipment essential for the development of power—switch gear, control panels, power transformers, capacitors, traction motors, etc., etc. The annual output at the factory will be of the order of about Rs. 25 crores.

28. **Bombay Uranium-Thorium Factory**—The foundation stone of the factory was laid in January 1954. The cost of the factory is estimated to be Rs. 45 lakhs. It will produce 205 to 228 tons of thorium nitrate per annum. The factory will process indigenous

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uranium and thorium ores, as well as uranium-bearing residues of Indian Rare Earths Ltd. The uranium will be extracted, purified and converted into metal for use in atomic reactors. A plant will also be set up in the Bhakra-Nangal area to manufacture fertilizers and heavy water, the latter of which is essential in the production of atomic energy.

29. **Heavy Engineering Corporation**—has been formed in December, 1958 to establish and administer a heavy machine-building plant at Hatia near Ranchi in Bihar, a coal mining machinery plant and optical glass factory (both to be located at Durgapur in West Bengal). Adjacent to the heavy machine building plant will be set up with Czech assistance, a foundry forge plant to serve metallurgical base.

30. **National Coal Development Corporation (Private) Ltd.**—was set up in 1956 to look after the production of coal in public sector. This Company has been formed to own and manage the existing state collieries as well as the new collieries to be established. There are eleven collieries, excluding Singareni collieries in Andhra Pradesh.

31. **Indian Rare Earths (Private) Limited**—was set up in August, 1950 jointly by the Governments of India and Kerala. This factory is designed to treat 1,500 tons of monazite per year and to produce therefrom about 1,500 tons of rare earth and also carbonate and sodium phosphate.

32. **Travancore Minerals (Private) Ltd.**—This industry was started in 1956 jointly by the Government of India and the Government of Kerala for taking over all sand separation undertakings from a previous company.

33. **Hindustan Salt Factory**—The Company has been set up by the Government of India at Jaipur to take over the Government Salt Works at Sambhar and Didwana in Rajasthan and Kharaghoda in Bombay respectively. It undertakes the manufacture, utilisation and processing of salt and its bye-products. The authorised capital of the Company is Rs. one crore.

34. **Orissa Mining Corporation (Private) Ltd.**—This private Company was set up in May 1956 as a joint venture of the Government of India and the Government of Orissa. The main object of the Company is to raise, assemble and transport iron and other minerals in Orissa for the purpose of sale or export or for undertaking of other responsibilities incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above objects.

35. **Teleprinter Manufacture**—An agreement was signed between the Government of India and the Italian firm of Olivetti for the manufacture of teleprinters and allied equipment in India in 1960. The agreement provides for the technical collaboration of Olivetti for a period of 10 years on a royalty basis. It is a Government-owned company. The total cost of the project is estimated at Rs. 1.20 crores including working capital. Place of production has not yet been finalised.

36. **National Newsprint and Paper Mills Ltd.**—Popularly known as Nepa Mills, it was formed as a private enterprise in 1947. Due to losses for various reasons, the mill passed in the hands of

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the Government of Madhya Pradesh who spent a large amount of money but could not rescue the mill. Ultimately the Government of India financed the scheme under the revised capital structure on 31st March, 1959. The commercial production of newsprint from indigenous pulp woods started in the financial year 1956-57. The production in recent years was as follows—1957-58—14,145 tons; 1958-59—21,838 tons.

DESCRIPTION OF INDIAN INDUSTRIES

1. TEXTILES—The Cotton Textile Industry of India is believed to have started on 22nd February, 1854. It occupies the foremost place among the organised industries of India. It has the largest capital structure—the amount invested being Rs. 120 crores with employment of 9 lakh workers. Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Kanpur, Nagpur, Indore, Madurai and Coimbatore are the main centres of the industry.

In 1959-60 there were 188 spinning mills and 294 composite mills, totalling 482 units. There were 13.41 million spindles and 2.01 lakh looms on 1st January, 1959 as against 31.1 million spindles and 2.01 lakh looms on 1st January, 1958. There is a *Cotton Textile Fund Committee* with the object of promoting textile research and export of cotton textiles. Textile research is carried out by the Textile Research Association to whom suitable financial assistance is given.

2. IRON AND STEEL—There were previously three main producers of iron and steel, namely, *Tata Iron and Steel Co.*, *Indian Iron and Steel Co.*, and *Mysore Iron and Steel Co.* Tatas were the first in the field in 1908.

To meet the increasing demand of iron and steel in India, the Government of India have started three Iron and Steel Works at Bhilai (Madhya Pradesh), Rourkela (Orissa) and Durgapur (Bengal). The Rourkela project has been started with the cooperation of German firm, Bhilai project with the help of Russian Government and Durgapur Project with the help of a British Combine. Rourkela plant has been set up at a cost of Rs. 170 crores, which is expected to produce 720,000 tons of steel per annum. Bhilai plant has cost 131 crores to provide the production of 770,000 tons of steel, heavy and medium products. Durgapur plant has cost 138 crores and is expected to produce steels and billets of 790,000 tons. All the factories have gone into full or partial production.

Ancillary Industries—The iron and steel industry in India may be divided broadly into two categories—basic and re-rolling. The main producers who may be placed in the first category are those who produce iron ore which makes pig iron out of which they manufacture steel. Alongside these, there are a wide range of subsidiaries. Those are the rerollers who produce certain sections of steel machines from billets and scraps supplied by the main steel producers. According to 1954 census of Indian Manufacturers, there were in India 126 large and small iron and steel works in India.

3. JUTE—This important textile industry has the distinction

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of accounting for approximately a quarter of the total export trade of the country. The progress of the industry can be gauzed from the fact that India has today become the chief jute manufacturer, consuming more than 60% of the raw jute of this sub-continent. The total capital invested in the industry is about Rs. 30 crores and the industry employs more than 3 lakhs of workers on the average.

At present the mills concentrate on producing mainly (1) *gunny bags* or cloth used for packing rice, wheat, oil seeds, etc.; (2) *hessian cloth* or *bags* used for bailing cotton, wool and other fibres; (3) *coarse carpets* and *rugs* and (4) *cordage*, (5) *jute tarpaulins* (6) *haper-lined hessian, jute carpets and jute webbing.*

4. COAL—The production, distribution, and prices of coal are administered by the *Department of Mines and Fuel* in the Ministry of Steel, Mines and Fuel. This Department has a *Coal and Legnite Division. Coal Controller, Calcutta* is responsible for regulating the production of coal and arranges for its distribution and movement. He also acts as the Adviser to the Government of India in the matter of fixation of statutory prices of coal. The Government of India have established a high-power body known as *Coal Council of India* for reviewing and studying and planning the development, utilization and due conservation of coal resources of the country. There is also a *Coal Advisory Committee*, whose function is strictly advisory. There is a *Coal Board* in Calcutta, which is a statutory body set up under the Coal Mines (Conservation and Safety) Act of 1952 for dealing effectively with the problems relating to safety in mines and conservation of coal. The *National Coal Development Corporation (P) Ltd.*, at Ranchi was formed in 1956 to look after the production of coal in the public sector. Under the *Coal Mines (Conservation and Safety) Act*, 1952 which was a positive step for the conservation of metallurgical coal, the production of coking coal was pegged from 1952. The *Fuel Research Institute* at Dighwadi helps to spread the knowledge of the composition of coal and of factors that influence its behaviour when heated.

The Government of West Bengal with the help of a West German Firm have established the Durgapur coke oven plant for supply of coking coal for the Durgapur Steel Plant.

5. ALUMINIUM—The internal primary production in India of aluminium began in a small way around 1943. The concerns producing aluminium at present are *Aluminium Corporation of India Ltd.*, and the *Indian Aluminium Company Ltd.* The former has its mines in Lohardaga, Bihar and its refining plant, reduction works, power plant and rolling mill in Jayakaynagar in Asansol. The Indian Aluminium Company has its bauxite mines in Lohardaga, refining plant in Muri, Bihar, reduction works in Alwaye, Kerala and rolling mills at Belur, Bengal, Indian Aluminium Company has established another smelter at Hirakud, Orissa. A new factory known as *Hindustan Aluminium Corporation* has been started in 1960 at Rihand Dam (U.P.). Another aluminium factory at private sector is being starter at Mettur (Madras) in Salem District known as *Madras Aluminium Ltd.*, at the estimated cost of Rs. 10.36 crores.

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6. SUGAR—India is the largest sugar producing country in the world. Indian industry employs about 1,50,000 workers. The country has nearly 4,000,000 acres under cane, which constitutes 35 p.c. of the world's total area under cane cultivation. The per-acre yield in India—14 to 15 tons, however, compares most unfavourably with the yields of 62 tons in Hawaii and 56 tons in Indonesia. The more important of cane-growing and sugar producing States in the country are Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Punjab, Bombay, Andhra and Madras. The first two alone contribute more than 70 p.c. of the total production. Approximately 55 per cent of the total cane produced in India is utilised for the manufacture of Gur and Khandsari. Only 25 p.c. goes to the mills for the manufacture of crystal sugar. It is India's second largest industry, next only to textiles. The total capital invested in the industry is estimated to be Rs. 72 crores. The growth of sugar industry in India has been "almost phenomenal" since protection was granted in 1932. There were 29 factories in 1930-31, by 1957-58 the number in operation had risen to 157.

Indian sugar is of three forms—*jaggery*, *khandsari*, and *white sugar*. Of these, the simpliest is jaggery, being merely cane-juice boiled (to a temperature of 115°c) and solidified. Juice is boiled in open pans to solidify. Jaggery-making is an important cottage-industry and 50 to 60 per cent of the cane produced goes into its making. *Khandsari* sugar is made through an indigenous process by the molasses being separated from sucrose. White sugar is directly produced in the factories in India. Only 25 per cent of the total cane produced goes into the making of white sugar.

The phenomenal growth of the industry led to the establishment of a net-work of sugar and cane research stations throughout the country. The responsibility of guiding sugarcane research rests mainly on the Indian Central Sugarcane Committee. A chain of sugarcane research stations have been established in various States. The establishment in 1936 of the *Indian Institute of Sugar Technology at Kanpur* is another great contribution made by the Government of India in the cause of sugar industry. The Development Council for the sugar industry was set up by the Government of India under the *Industries (Development & Regulation) Act*, 1951 in 1956.

The three main by-products of sugar industry—*bagasse*, *press-mud* and *molasses*—are used as raw materials by a number of industries. Bagasse is widely employed in the manufacture of paper pulp and card board. Considerable work is being done in respect of extraction of wax from press-mud. Similarly, molasses are used in the manufacture of aconitic acid, industrial and power alcohol, chemicals, tobacco curing, etc.

While there is no statutory control over the price of sugar, factories are obliged to keep 25 per cent of their production in reserve, which may be requisitioned by Government in times of need. Releases from factories are also regulated by Government with an eye to the supply and demand position in the country.

7. CYCLE—Records indicate that first bicycle made its ap-

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pearance in India in 1890. The indigenous industry was sponsored first in 1925 in Madras with German technical assistance but their efforts proved abortive. Between 1938 and 1941 three manufacturing concerns were started, namely India Cycle Manufacturing Co., Calcutta, Hindustan Bicycle Manufacturing Co., Patna, and Hind Cycles, Bombay. In 1949 Government of India gave permission to three new units to establish manufacturing plants—(1) Sen-Raleigh Industries who secured technical collaboration with Raleigh Industries, (2) T. I. Cycles of India with technical co-operation of Tube Investment Ltd., and Hercules Cycle & Motor Co., of England and (3) Atlas Cycle Industries.

Since then the development of cycle industry has been phenomenal. There are 21 large-scale bicycle factories in the country. of these three are in West Bengal, five in Punjab, six in U.P., three in Delhi and one each in Bombay, Madras, Bihar and Assam. The licensed capacity of these units for bicycles is 1,438,500. In addition there are 112 small scale units with an aggregate capacity of 5 lakh cycles. The total production of bicycles taken together was 928,809 in 1957, 1,063,843 in 1958 and 1,163,824 in 1959. There are 23 units for the manufacture of spare parts and components only—There are as many as 612 units in the small scale sector which manufacture components and accessories for bicycle.

8. ALCOHOL—Alcohol is available in three varieties. It can be used as *drink*; secondly, it can be used for *industrial purposes*, such as, in the manufacture of a number of chemicals; thirdly, it can be used as a *motor fuel* for the production of mechanical power which is called power alcohol. Industrial alcohol is valuable in the manufacture of chemicals like acetone, acetic acid, ether, chloroform, etc. It is also necessary as a solvent in the manufacture of fine chemicals, medical preparations and toilets, etc. It is produced from molasses, a by-product of sugar industry.

9. PAPER AND PAPER BOARDS—The first paper-mill was started in India a century ago by Dr. William Carey, the famous missionary. With the help of protective tariffs from 1925 to 1947, this industry made steady growth. The paper industry today is one of the major industries and has made considerable progress since second World War. The average *per capita* consumption in India comes to about 2 lbs. compared to 418 lbs. in the United States and 100 to 200 lbs in several European countries and in Japan. The production of paper reached 2,92,000 tons in 1959, which is three times the production ten years ago. The value of papers and all paper products stood at Rs. 20 crores.

The present capacity is computed at 3.24 lakh tons. The target for the Third Plan is envisaged at 9 lakh tons.

All the raw materials required by the industry, like bamboo, sabai grass, bagasse, rags, waste paper, miscellaneous fibres, etc., are available in the country. The primary raw material for paper in the country has been bamboo. Most of the bamboo areas in the country have been covered up. The country has therefore, to look

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for alternative raw materials, chiefly to agricultural residues. Bagasse occupies a special position in this regard.

10. LEATHER, HIDES AND SKINS—Leather industry in India ranks probably fourth in importance as an earner of foreign exchange. Indian Union produces annually 5.1 buffalo-hides, 16.1 million cow-hides, 22.9 million goat skins and 14.2 million sheep skins, besides a considerable quantity of reptile skins, such as those of crocodile, python, snake, lizard etc. The value of the raw hides and skins produced annually is estimated to be about Rs. 40 crores. Indian leather industry fetches foreign exchange to the extent of Rs. 23 to 25 crores annually.

West Bengal and Madras are overwhelmingly the largest producers of cattle hides ; Madras is the largest producer of buffalo hides and sheep skins ; and U. P., the largest producer of goat skins followed by Bengal and Bihar.

By far the largest utilisation of leather is in the production of footwear. Footwear produced in this country may briefly be classified into two categories—(1) Western types, (2) Indian types. The footwear producers are classified into three classes—(a) machine-made section, (b) small-scale section, (c) cottage-industry section. The industry is organised mainly on a small scale, although there are a few big tanneries in Madras, Kanpur, Calcutta and Bombay. There are about 725 tanneries in the country ; only 74 of them employ more than 50 workers. The industry is almost entirely in the private sector. There are at present twelve large-scale units, manufacturing footwear.

11. RAYON—This industry was started in India after the war in 1950. From 1950, by systematic developments, India today is able to produce about 20 million pounds of rayon yarn per year in popular variety of 150 and 120 deniers. The first mill which was started in India was *Travancore Rayons Ltd.*, in 1950. In the following year, 1951, *National Rayon Corporation* in Kalyan in Bombay came into existence, followed by *Sirsilk Ltd.*, Hyderabad and the *Gwalior Rayon Silk Manufacturing Co Ltd.*, Nagdah. Now a fifth unit has been started in the name of *Century Rayon Ltd.*, located in Kalyan, Bombay.

12. PETROLEUM—The Indin industry in oil is at present confined to a relatively small area in Assam. India raises not more than 8 p.c. of total consumption and imports about Rs. 50 crores worth of crude oil and derivatives a year. Mineral oil is mainly obtained from Digboi oil fields, owned by Assam Oil Company, subsidiary to the Burmah Oil Co. It has a refinery at Digboi and a tin factory at Tinsukia. A new oil field has, however, been found at Nahorkatiya and Moran in the Brahmaputra valley, 20 miles to the west of Digboi and the first flow of oil was released on 22nd Nov., 1954. This oil-well at Nahorkatiya has a depth of 10,697 ft. The latter are expected to provide 25 lakh tons of crude oil annually. An agreement was signed in January, 1958 for the formation of a rupee company, the Oil India (Private) Ltd., for exploration and production of petroleum and crude oil and for the construction of pipe lines to the two refineries proposed to be set-up in public sector.

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13. SILK—The silk industry in India, which dates from ancient times, was at one time of very great importance but it was a decaying industry afterwards. The second World War proved grand incentive to its revival. Sericulture industry occupies a prominent place among the village and small-scale industries in India. Nearly half the quantity of raw silk is produced in Mysore State followed in order of importance by the States of Assam, West Bengal, Madras and Jammu & Kashmir.

Non-mulberry raw silk is used almost wholly for civilian fabrication purposes, whereas mulberry raw silk has vital importance for Defence Services of the country as dropping silk parachutes.

The Government of India has been giving tariff protection to sericulture industry since 1930. For the promotion and development of sericulture and silk industry, a Central Silk Board had been established in 1949 under the *Central Silk Board Act LX* of 1948.

Central Silkworm Station, Srinagar was established in 1958 with a view to tackling the problems of evolution of suitable univoltine and bivoltine silk worm races and with a view to dispensing with the need for imports from abroad. The Central Sericultural Research Station was established at Berhampore (Bengal) in 1943. It has also a sub-station at Kalimpong. The Government of India have decided to expand the existing station at Berhampore to serve as an All India Institute.

14. SEWING MACHINES—The first factory for the production of sewing machines was started in 1937. The real growth of the industry began after the World War II. By 1951 production in the main factories was over 44,000 sewing machines, while the small-scale sector manufactured about 4,000 machines per year. The production in 1959 reached 3 lakhs. A noteworthy feature of the industry is that all parts are now made in the country. The most encouraging feature of this industry is that the exports of these India-made machines are gradually increasing and imports are considerably decreasing every year. The exports of sewing machines has been steadily increasing. In 1958-59 the exports valued at Rs. 30 lakhs as compared to Rs. 6.5 lakhs in 1955-56.

15. WOOL AND WOOLLEN TEXTILES—India produces about 70 million pounds of wool annually. The major portion of the clip is hairy and coarse and includes a considerable quantity of coloured produce. The yield of wool varies from three-fourths of a pound to four pounds per sheep per year. The present average yield per sheep in India is estimated at 1.7 pounds per annum. Annually more than 50 per cent of the clip, valued at Rs. 14 crores, is exported. The mill industry concerned with the manufacture of the superior cloths, has to depend on the import of raw of semi-processed wool to the extent of 15 million pounds, estimated to cost not less than Rs. 11 crores of foreign exchange.

The woollen hosiery industry in India consists of 875 small scale units, the bulk of them are located at Ludhiana and the remainder dispersed over the States of Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Delhi and Bombay. There are 800 hosiery units at Ludhiana. The total

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number of knitting machines of all kinds engaged in the manufacture of hosiery articles are about 10,000. The capital invested in all hosiery units is estimated to be Rs. 3 crores ; of which the Ludhiana units alone account for little over Rs. 2.5 crores. The quantity of yarn consumed by the hosiery industry is estimated at about 5 million lb., of which about 4 million lb. of hosiery and knitting yarn are consumed by Ludhiana hosiery units. Woollen textiles are only a part of the entire wool industry. The other important sectors are carpets and woollen hosiery. Other types of cottage products made of wool are rough blankets, towels, fur-coats and bundies, felt and hair belting for machinery.

16. CARPETS—Carpets are India's best products in wool. Carpet making is an organised industry. The main centres of production are Amritsar, Agra, Gwalior and Jaipur for better classes of carpets ; Kashmir for cheape qualities ; and Mysore, Bellary, Bangalore and other places in the South are for druggets. The industry's raw material requirements are met from local sources of supply. These goods find their outlet predominently in the overseas markets.

17. CEMENT—The manufacture of cement in India began in 1904 in Madras State but the project failed. Nine years later, a small factory was started at Porbandar and soon after, factories were built in Lakheri and Katni. Indian Cement Manufacturers' Association was formed in 1926. In 1927 Concrete Association of India was formed to popularise the use of cement and in 1930 the Cement Marketing Company of India was formed to take over the distribution and sale of the output of member companies. There has been a steady expansion of the industry. In 1947 there were 18 factories, producing 1.44 million tons of cement. The actual production of cement during 1959 has been 6.82 million tons as against a production of 6.06 million tons during 1958. The number of cement factories at present in the country is 32. The actual production of asbestos cement products during 1959 was about 179,321 tons.

18. CERAMICS—is said to be the oldest of industries, and is also an ancient art in India. The industry in the modern sense, however, is of comparatively recent origin, although a pottery and stoneware works were established by Burn & Co., at Raniganj in 1860. There are now some 53 ceramic factories in India, including those producing insulators. There has been much progress in the production of ceramics, notably in the field of whitewares, sanitary wares, glazed files and high tension insulators. They are located over a fairly wide area but the majority of them mainly centre round Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal, Bombay, Madras and Mysore. Except for ball clay, all other raw materials required are to be found in India.

19. RUBBER—Rubber goods manufacturing industry in India has been able to ensure self-sufficiency with regard to diverse rubber goods needed for the home market, except in the case of certain specialised items which are being imported in very small quantities. There are at present 74 organised units engaged in the manufacture of a wide range of rubber goods. There are at present 3 units

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engaged in the manufacture of automobile tyres and tubes in the country.

Indian Rubber Board has been constituted under the *Rubber (Production and Marketting) Act*, 1947 for the development of the rubber industry in regard to production and marketting of rubber.

Rubber articles manufactured in India may be broadly classified under the following categories—(1) tyres and tubes, (2) rubber footwear, (3) rubber-covered cables, (4) proofed fabrics, (5) mechanical rubber goods, (6) medical rubber goods, (7) miscellaneous such as extrudeal and moulded articles and (8) latex and sponge rubber goods.

20. MATCH—Match manufacturing hardly existed in this country before World War I. A considerable expansion of the industry was, however, made after the imposition in 1922 of a revenue duty on imports, which was converted in 1928 into a protective duty. The effect was so conspicuous that the foreign exporters ceased to export and a big Swedish match combine came to India and established many factories at Bareilly, Ambarnath, Calcutta and Madras, under the name and style of the Western India Match Co. Ltd.

The organised sector consists of two units, the Western India Match Co. and the Assam Match Co., owing and operating a chain of eight factories sperad throughout India, including one in Andamans—all of which came under A class factories with a capacity of over 500 gross boxes per day. The working capital invested in the industry is about Rs. 6 crores, of which foreign p.c. is about 30. There are about 234 smaller and cottage units which are classed B, C and D class factories. All India Khadi and Village Industries Board has been made responsible for the organisation and development of the cottage match industry.

21. GLASS—The Indian glass industry may be divided into two categories—(1) Cottage industry making mainly glass bangles in small furnaces from glass blocks produced in factories, the main centre of which is Firozabad, U. P. (2) Modern factory industry.

With the exception of soda ash, sulphur and certain colouring materials, the raw materials of the industry are all supplied from indigenous sources. The industry is widely dispersed and their distribution territorially is as follows—

There are at present 123 glass factories in India, including 93 bangle factories. The largest number of factories are in West Bengal. The total installed capacity has been registered as 3,92,284 tons per annum. According to authoritative estimates, the total capital invested in this industry is nearly Rs. 4 crores. The total annual output of the industry is estimated at Rs. 10 crores. The industry produces tableware, lampware, bottles, sheet glass, scientific glass ware, natural glass, ampules and bangles. The manufacture of thermos flasks, machine-made glass tubing, etc., has also begun.

22. PLYWOOD—The plywood industry in India came into existence during the second World War, mainly to cater for the needs of the tea industry. There are nearly 70 factories—big and small—on the approved Government list. The majority of them are engaged

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in manufacturing tea-chests and the big units are engaged in manufacturing various types of plywood. The installed capacity of the plywood industry is over 250 million sq. ft. per annum.

23. SOAP—The industry had made remarkable progress even before the war and had built an export trade of its own. India is largely self-sufficient in raw materials, except for caustic soda, soap colours, and some perfumes. The consumption of soap in India is estimated at about ¾ lb. per head per annum, about 120,000 tons yearly which compares with 2½ lb. of Indonesia and nearly 3 lb. in Ceylon. The industry is divided into an organised section which produces about two-thirds of soap manufactured in India—and a very large number of cottage units producing the remaining one-third, which is mainly cold-process soap.

24. TEA—The tea industry is the foremost plantation industry in India. Tea ranks after jute as the second largest item in India's export trade. The industry part of it lies in cutting, drying and blending of the leaf. Northern India accounts for about 80 p.c. of the total Indian tea production, averaging about 550 million lb. and Assam producing over 70 p.c. of it. The tea plantations in South India are distributed among four States—Madras, Travancore-Cochin, Mysore and Coorg. More than 75 per cent of the production is exported chiefly to the United Kingdom, United States, Canada, Australia and the Middle East countries.

There is a *Tea Board* under the Ministry of Commerce and Industry which administers the Tea Act, 1953, and is primarily concerned with measures for the development of tea industry in India, including the control of the cultivation and export of tea from this country and propaganda, both inside and outside India for increased consumption of tea. The Board is also responsible for the regulation and control of the sale of tea by auctions or otherwise, the registration and licencing of brokers and blenders and the quality control. It is financed by a cess collected on the export of tea. The important points about Indian tea are—(*a*) There are more than 6,500 tea gardens in India covering nearly 7,90,000 acres. Their total yearly production is over 630 million pounds of tea. (*b*) Capital invested in Indian tea industry is estimated to be 118.06 crores in 1954 (excluding small holdings below 100 acres) of which Rs. 40.5 crores is Indian and Rs. 72.55 crores non-Indians. (*c*) People of Indi a consume about 1 76 million pounds of tea yearly, or at the rate of ½ lb. per head per annum. (*d*) India meets over 50 p.c. of the world demand for tea.

25. COFFEE—is one of the major plantation industries of India. Practically, all coffee is grown in South India in the States of Kerala, Mysore, Madras and only a very small quantity being grown in Bihar and Assam. It is the most suitable crop for the hills in South India. Mysore is by far the largest producer of coffee with about 47 per cent of the total area under coffee in the country. Madras comes next with about 28 per cent of the area, while Coorg contributes nearly 22 per cent. India's coffee is claimed to be of the finest and the best quality. The production of coffee in India is only 1.1 per cent of the total world production.

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The main species of coffee that are grown in India are *Coffea Arabica* which is noted for its quality and *Coffea Robusta* which has better resistance to pests and diseases, yields more and is cheaper to produce. The cultivation of *Liberica* coffee is negligible. The major part of the acreage under coffee, 73 p.c. approximately, is claimed by *Arabica* variety. The cultivation of *Robusta* variety is now on the increase.

Under the Indian Coffee Market Expansion Act, *Indian Coffee Board* has been constituted which is responsible for evolving a system of regulated and co-operative marketting of coffee. The marketting of coffee is in the hands of the Indian Coffee Board.

26. TANNING—With a cattle population of about 20 crores which is nearly three times that of U.S.A. India produces about two crores of cattle hides per year. In addition, there are about 7.5 crores of goats and 4 crores of sheep, producing about 3.5 crores of goat skins and 1.7 crores of sheep skins per year. Tanning industry is organised mainly on a small-scale basis. There are about 725 tanneries in the country, of which only 74 employ more than 50 workers. For the facilities of training, in addition to the regional tanning institutes which are functioning at Bombay, Madras, Calcutta and Jullundur, a *Central Leather Research Institute* was established in Madras in January, 1953. The *Leather Training School at Kanpur* has been turned into a full-fledged Government Leather Institute offering facilities for higher technical training.

27. AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY—The first motor car was imported into the country in 1898. It was only in 1947 that the Government of India took up the question of manufacture of automobiles in right earnest.

The year 1954 was an important landmark in the development of motor industry in India. The Government of India took the bold decision of restricting the manufacture and assembling of automobiles to only a few recognised concerns who proved their *bona fide* by agreeing to a definite phased programme of development with the ultimate objective of reaching the stage of complete manufacture of all the important components.

There are at present six approved manufacturers for automobiles in the country. They are, namely, Hindustan Motor, Calcutta ; Premier Automobiles, Bombay ; Mahindra and Mahindra, Bombay ; Ashoke Leyland, Madras ; Standard Motor Products, Madras and Tata Locomotive and Engineering Co., Bombay. Two automobile diesel engine manufacturers, Simpson & Co. and Automobile Products of India, were approved of in 1955. On the recommendation of the Tariff Board, the Government has given protection for a period of 10 years.

The production of motor vehicles during 1957 amounted to 36,468.

28. PLASTICS—The plastic industry is comparatively new in India. Rapid progress has been made in the plastic industry. India is now in a position to export plastic goods. There is a Plastics and Linoleum Export Promotion Council.

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29. TOBACCO—India is the third largest tobacco producing country in the world after U.S.A. and China. As a cash crop, tobacco brings to the Indian caltivators an annual income of Rs. 40 crores and contributes over Rs. 50 crores annually by way of excise duty to the national exchequer. Andhra Pradesh produces 33 per cent of the country's Virginia cigarette tobacco. Next comes Bombay, Madras and Uttar Pradesh. The Government of India constituted in 1945 an autonomous body known as the Indian Central Tobacco Committee.

30. COIR—Coir means fibre obtained from the husk of the coconut fruit. India is the world's chief producer of coir and coir products. Of an estimated annual production of 1,20,000 tons of coir yarn, more than 90 p.c. of which is produced in Kerala. On an average, about 50,000 tons of coir yarn and 21,000 tons of coir products are exported. The coir industry which is exclusively South Indian, is concentrated in Kerala area and employs over six lakhs of workers There are two principal types of coir fibre—the mat fibre and curied fibre. The bulk of the output consists of mat fibre. The coir industry is organised partly on cottage industry basis and partly in factories. A research institute at Kalavoor, near Allepey (Kerala) and a branch research institute and model factory at Uluberia in Howrah district (Bengal) are being set up.

A *Coir Board* has been established under the Coir Industry Act, 1953 to serve the coir industry in the organised production, marketting and standardisation of its products. It levys a customs duty not exceeding Rs. 1 per cwt. on all coir fibre, coir yarn and coir products exported from India.

31. SPORTS GOODS—At present sports goods industry is predominently concentrated in the northern region of the country, specially at Jullundur and Meerut. Other centres of the industry in the northern region are Delhi, Batala and Patiala (Punjab), Agra, Lucknow and Allahabad (U. P.), and Jammu & Kashmir. The raw materials for these goods are willow and mullberry wood which are produced in Kashmir and other parts of the country. The only other centres of the industry are : Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Bhopal and these account for hardly 10 p.c. of the output. There are 258 manufacturing units in the northern region and 17 in other regions. The manufacture of sports goods is essentially a cottage industry.

32. LAC—It is the secretion of an insect which feeds on the sap of certain trees known as lac hosts. The main lac-hosts in Bengal are *palas*, *ber* and *kusum*. The leading lac producing States in India are Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal, portion of Bombay, Orissa and Assam. In West Bengal it is mainly grown in Murshidabad, Malda, Bankura and Purulia. The lac which is secreted from the glands of the lac insects is converted into sticklac which is crushed and mashed to form seedlac. This seedlac is processed into shellac, either by indigenous method or hydraulic pressure method or Soviet process method. For the latter two process, there are only two mechanised factories in Calcutta, while the processing of seedlac and shellac by the indegenous method is carried out in

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about 300 factories located at Purulia, Chotanagpur, Madhya Pradesh and Bombay. The principal uses of the processed products of Seedlac and Shellac are in the following industries: gramophone records, varnishes and polishes, electrical industries, hats, printing and paper, sealingwax, cement and adhesives, etc. The research on the entomological and chemical problems of lac production is being carried out by the Indian Lac Research Institute, Namkum (Ranchi). Calcutta is the main market for lac and practically all the sticklac, shellac, seedlac, kiri lac and molamma, etc., produced in the country come to Calcutta for sale.

33. VANASPATI INDUSTRY—was first introduced into India after World War I by imports from Europe. The first vanaspati factory was established in India in 1930. The Government helped the industry by giving it protection. Vanaspati is mainly made from groundnut oil and also from cotton-seed oil. In 1944 the Government of India introduced legislation to control the industry by establishing an office of the Vegetable Oil Products Controller and also promulgated the Vegetable Oil Products Control Order. Under this regulation , the quality of production has turn standardised and new factories have to obtain permits before starting production.

The vanaspati industry is the second largest food-processing industry, next only to sugar industry. It is the largest of its kind in Asia.

ELECTRIC FANS—At present there were 24 firms in the large scale sector producing electric fans. The total productions of these fans during 1959 was about 7,31,100. The export of electric fans during 1959 numbered approximately 38,000 valued at 38.5 lakhs.

COTTAGE & SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES

PATTERN OF COTTAGE INDUSTRIES—The small-scale and cottage industries in our country are in many cases functioning as independent and isolated units without the aid of any mechanical or electrical appliances. Most of them do not yet possess any adequate assistance either in production methods or in sales organisation. The inherited skill of the artisans appear to be the main factor that is now largely responsible in many cases to sustain these industries at the present moment.

Development of industries, more particularly cottage and small-scale industries, is the primary responsibility of the State Governments. According to item 52 of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution, however, industries, the control of which by the Union is declared by Parliament by law to be expedient in public interest, are in the Union List. According to the Industrial Policy Resolution of the

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Government of India, dated April 6, 1948, the development of some large-scale industries and the co-ordination of cottage and small-scale industries have been recognised to be a part of the Central Governsent's responsibility. The Planning Commission has not only endorand the above recognition, but also has laid down the sphere of responsibility of the Central Government in respect of cottage industries, stressed the importance of such industries in the agricultural economy of the country and recommended the setting up of an organisation by the Central Government for the implementation of the various programmes.

The Government of India has been taking some active steps for rehabilitating the cottage and small-scale industries on a sound basis. The Government is assisting the handloom weaving industry by subsidising if from out of the cess levied on the production of mill cloth. The production of khadi is encouraged by subsidising it at double the rates applicable to handloom goods. The Government is also giving preference to the products of small-scale units in the matter of purchases required for various departments. They are also granting loans repayable in easy and convenient instalments to those engaged in cottage industries. State aid loans for small industries are normally given by the Directors of Industries in States.

The cottage industries broadly include occupations, mainly allied to agriculture : handicrafts pursued by specialised artisans, processing industries carried on with human or animal power chiefly in cottages. industries operated in domestic units principally without the aid of power, and small-sized enterprises making some use of power, but lying outside the purview of the Factories Act. Small-scale industries are now defined as all industrial units with a capital of not more than Rs. 5 lakhs, irrespective of the number of persons employed. The work of organising any of these small-scale industries is primarily the responsibility of State Governments. To supplement their efforts for the improvement of cottage and small-scale industries, the Government has set up six organisations, namely, *All India Khadi and Village Industries Commission, All India Handicrafts Board, All India Handloom Board, Small-Scale Industries Board, the Coir Board and Central Silk Board.*

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE—Financial assistance is now given to the small-scale industries by the Government and banking institutions in the following manner—(1) *Grants* are given by the State Governments for the development of small-scale industries ; (2) *Loans* are given for the establishment of Industrial Estates which seek to remove small industrial units from urban areas and provide them at the new sites with factory space and common facilities. These loans are given by the Central Government to the State Governments.

THE ORGANISATION AND FUNCTIONS.—The cottage and small-scale industries are under the Ministry of Commerce and Industries which looks after their development and helps them in many ways. The following are some of the Bodies which help to foster the growth of these industries—

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Office of the Development Commissioner for small-scale industries.—This office is responsible for development and fostering of small-scale industries ; it also supervises, co-ordinates and controls the activities of the National Small Industries Corporation and the Regional Small Industries Services Institutes, Major Institutes, Branch Institutes and Extension Centres.

All-India Handloom Board was reconstituted by the Government in 1958. Its main functions are : The Board advises Government generally on the problems of the handloom industry, examines schemes for improvement and development of the industry and makes recommendations for financial assistance for such schemes. A cess of three pies per yard is levied on all mill-made cloth consumed within the country, for development schemes of khadi and handlooms to be financed out of this source. The Board provides for various forms of aid being extended to handloom weavers. It has five Regional offices and eleven Sub-Regional offices.

The *Khadi and Village Industries Commission* was constituted under an Act passed in 1956. The Commission is responsible for preparing and organising programmes for the production and development of *khadi* and village industries, including training of personnel, manufacture, supply of equipment, supply of raw materials, marketing and research and study of the economic problems of different village industries. To encourage the production of *Khadi*, a rebate is allowed to the consumer at the following rates : 10 nP. per rupee on reeled silk *Khadi* as well as on pashmina and pashmina mixed with silk and cotton ; 19 nP on all other varieties of *Khadi* and ready-made garments. A subsidy of 5 annas per sq. yard is given to those who produce *Khadi* for their own use and of six pies a rupee to centres engaged in the production or sale of *Khadi*.

The Commission has the following industries under its purview—(*i*) Khadi (including Ambar khadi) (*ii*) Bee-keeping (*iii*) Curing and tanning of hides and skins (*iv*) Cottage soap industry (*v*) Ghani oil industry (*vi*) Manufacture of hand-made paper (*vii*) Manufacture of cane gur and khandsari (*viii*) Manufacture of palm-gur (*ix*) Processing of cereals and pulses (*x*) Fibre (other than coir) (*xi*) Blacksmithy and (*xii*) Carpentry.

All-India Handicrafts Board : The All-India Handicrafts Board was set up in 1952 and reconstituted in 1957. This Board mainly works for the improvement of production and marketing of handicrafts in India and abroad.

National Small Industries Corporation Ltd., was established in 1955. The main functions of the Corporation are (1) procurement of Government contracts for execution by small-scale units (2) supply of machinery on hire-purchase basis to small industrial units (3) marketing assistance for small scale industries' products and (4) construction and management of the Industrial Estates at Okhla (New Delhi) and Allahabad. In order to decentralise the work relating to hire-purchase of machinery, marketting, etc., four subsidary Corporations have been established, one each at Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.

Small-Scale Industries Board was constituted on the 2nd Novem-

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ber, 1954 in accordance with the recommendations of the Ford Foundation Industrial Planning Team, to frame and recommend programmes generally for the development of small-scale industries in India.

Central Silk Board was constituted in 1949 to look after the promotion and development of sericulture and the silk industry. *Central Sericultural Research Station* has been established at Berhampore (West Bengal) in 1943. The station is centrally administered and deals with the problem of research. It conducts experiments and research in the various branches of the sericulture industry and has a sub-station at Kalimpong (Bengal). The Board has set up an *All India Sericultural Training Institute* at Mysore and a *Central Foreign Race Seed Station* at Srinagar.

Coir Board—Under the Coir Industry Act of 1953, a Coir Board has been established in 1954 with its headquarters at Ernakulam in Kerala State. Coir Board is entrusted with the duty of promoting the development, under the control of the Central Government, of the coir industry and of taking all the necessary measures in this behalf. A research station at Kalavoor, near Allepey (Kerala) and a branch research institute at Uluberia (Bengal) are being set up.

Industrial Estates—Second Five-Year Plan emphasises the need fer Industrial Estates in different parts of the country. Out of 160 Industrial Estates planned, 96 have already been sanctioned and 31 of these have come into being.

Industrial Extension Service—has been undertaken directly by the Central Government for technical assistance to small industries. Fifteen small industries service institutes and four branch institutes have been set up.

The Government of India has set up an organisation known as *Indian Handicrafts Development Corporation (Private) Ltd.* It will organise production of handicrafts on a commercial basis to ensure prompt supply against orders, particularly in regard to exports. The Corporation will also establish sales depots and selling agencies.

SPECIAL COTTAGE INDUSTRY PRODUCTS OF INDIA

Bidri work—'Bidri' is so called after the ancient name of Bidar, the place of origin. The basic material employed in the manufacture is an alloy consisting mostly of zinc and copper. Pure gold or silver in sheets or wires are hammered and inlaid into carves of inlaid designs. The alloy which is of leaden colour turns into jet black and forms a contrasting background to the silver or gold design. Articles such as cigar and cigarette boxes and cases, ash trays, vases, powder boxes, trinket boxes, fruit bowls, etc., are being manufactured.

Phulkari—is the general name given to the famous Punjabi shawls known as Bagh and Phulkari. Phulkari means flowercraft and Bagh a garden. The embroidery is done with soft untwisted silk called pat, on plain coarse khaddar. The motifs and designs are both rich, colourful and attractive with ends or Pallas of exquisite workmanship. The whole sheet of khaddar gets covered like a garden in full bloom and presents a gay and floral appearance.

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Filigree—Filigree work is an indigenous art of Orissa State. It is now prevalent in Orissa, Hyderabad, Kashmir and West Bengal. Pure silver wire of different shapes and gauges are used for filigree work. Charcoal and silver solder are utilised for soldering the filigree work. The types of products are—ash trays, bangles, betel boxes, buttons, caskets, cigarette boxes, flower vases, necklaces, ear tops, powder boxes, etc.

Horn articles—The horn industry, like the filigree industry, has been an indigenous cottage industry of Orissa. It is now largely found in Kerala, Orissa, Bombay, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal. The main raw material is buffalo horn, though horns of deer and bisons are also used for some special types.

Ivory work—Ivory carving is an outstanding handicraft in many States of India, chief of them being Kerala, Hyderabad, Mysore, Madras, West Bengal, Delhi and Rajasthan.

Nirmal work—The toy industry of Nirmal in Adilabad District (Andhra) is peculiar to the Andhra Pradesh (Hyderabad). These toys are made of 'burgu' and 'runki' wood which are very light in weight and easily workable. The products consist of vegetable and fruit trays, bangles, lamp stands, cigars and cigarette boxes, ladies shoe hills, etc.

Silk Products—Murshidabad produces several varieties of silk of the softest texture. Mysore silk saries are in vivid colours, the beauty of which is enhanced by their small edging of gold and silver; the thicker Kashmir silk sari has edges worked in coloured silk. The *tasur* from Sambalpur, *mogia* silks from Ahmedabad, the silks of Surat and silk satinette from Kathiawar, the *patola* silk of Baroda, all vie with one another in texture, colour and durability.

Metal Art Wares—the polished brass with engraving or enamelling of Jaipur, Kashmir, Moradabad and Banaras; the brass, copper and bronze-cast images and wrought pieces of Madura and Tanjore with edged or encrussted mythological motiffs are only some of the numerous instances of the distinguished art of the country in this field. The other articles are—flower vases, candle sticks, decanters, finger bowls, tumblers, fruit dishes, powder pots, etc., etc.

Handloom Industry—Handloom industry is the largest cottage industry, next to agriculture, providing livelihood to nearly 20 millions in the country in the country side, and meeting a third of the country's cloth requirement. Early in 1953, the Government decided to rehabilitate the handloom industry by creating a *cess fund.* In 1954, the necessary machinery started functioning. All India Handloom Board set up Designs Centres at Bombay, Madras, Banaras and Calcutta and sub-centres at Kanchipuram, Surat and Chanderi for preparing designs on the basis of the old tradition of the centre and also for preparing new designs. A well-planned dyeing and printing laboratory forms an essential part of each Designs Centre. There are over 28 lakhs of looms in India. Handlooms yearly produce more than 1,500 million yards—roughly one-third of the total mill production. Certain varieties of cloth have been reserved exclusively for the handloom sector, such as coloured sarees, dhoties, towels, bed-sheets, etc. A Handloom Fabrics Marketing Society has been established to

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promote inter-State and export marketing for handloom fabrics. The handloom textile industry is wide-spread in India. It consists of cotton wools, wool and silk-spinning, and weaving and dyeing and printing, such as : famous cotton, *sarees* and *dhoties* of Madras, Madhya Bharat and West Bengal ; famous furnishing fabrics made at Orissa and Bihar ; gorgeous brocades of Banaras and Hyderabad ; scarbes of Banaras, famous prints of Murshidabad, Furrukhabad, Jaipur and Bombay, Batik of Santineketan ; Kalmakari (pen work) of Masulipatam, tie & dye of Jaipur, Mysore, West Bengal and Kashmir silk sarees and dress material ; woollen fabrics of Kashmir, and carpets, rugs and druggets of Mirzapur, Bhadohi, Ellore, Kashmir, Bangalore and Jaipur.

Inlay Work—one of the most distinctive handicrafts in India is inlay work in words Rich in beautiful designs have been executed for several centuries. This art flurishes in a few places such as Agra, Delhi and Fatehpur Sicri in the North and in States of Mysore and Kerala. In North India, Craftsmen generally use only ivoy for inlaying on word, but in Mysore they use teakwood, brass, silver, coloured stones etc.

STATE COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

Ajmer—The most important cottage industry of this place is handloom weaving. Other industries are leather goods, toys, soaps, furniture, buttons and moodhas.

Assam—Handloom weaving is the largest and the most important cottage industry in Assam. In fact, it is the hereditary occupation of Assamese womenfolk who alone constitute about 95 per cent. of the weavers in the State. Assam is noted for her non-mulberry silk, *viz.*, *Eri* and *Muga* from time immemorial. Muga is a light-brown silk, used in summer and winter. The bulk of the production of muga raw silk is done in a village named Sualkuchi, situated on the northern bank of the Brahmaputra. Muga silk is produced by a kind of caterpiller which feeds on the leaves of *som* and *sualu* trees. Eri or Endi is a rough cream coloured silk used in winter, as it is warm. The worms feed on eri (castor) seeds. Among the other cottage industries are : rice pounding, ivory, bamboo and canework, bell-metal work and bee-keeping.

Bihar—The cottage industries in this State in their order of importance are handloom weaving, steel goods and cutlery, tanning and leather manufacture, pottery, jewellery, non-ferrous metal wares. This is the only State which produces shell buttons from the mother-of-pearl.

Bombay—Handloom weaving industry is the most important cottage industry of Bombay State. The other industries in the order of their importance are tanning and leather, village oil, hand-made paper, ivory, horn and wood-carving, non-ferrous metal wares and cane works. The important industry of Kutch is handloom weaving. The other industries are cutlery, jewellery, non-ferrous metal ware, tanning and match.

Gujarat—is famous for tanning and leather goods industry,

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brass utensils, iron and steel articles. In addition to these, weaving of cotton and wool is an important industry.

Coorg—There is only one cottage industry in this State, namely, bee-keeping.

Delhi—Among the important cottage industries of Delhi are leather industries, gari and zardozi, ivory carving, cane and bamboo basket making, calico printing, plastic goods, paper products, brass wares, wood work, artificial limb making, sola hats, imitation jewellery, gold and silver jewellery, lock making and tin containers, button making, soap making, tazi-dermy, thread ball, gas mantle, wooden scales, surgical goods, sports goods and metal works.

Himachal Pradesh—The only cottage industries reported from this State are cotton hand-spinning and handloom weaving and woollen hand-spinning and hand-weaving. Sericulture industry exists in all districts.

Andhra Pradesh—The important cottage industries of Andhra Pradesh are as follows—(1) *Toys* are made in different places in Andhra Pradesh, such as Kondapalli, Nirmal, Nokkapalli, and Tirupathi (2) *Carpets* of Warangal and Eluru are really the pride of Andhra Pradesh. They are woven from silk, cotton or woollen yard (3) The art of *fabric priting* in Andhra Pradesh is unique in character (4) The artistic *mat weaving industry* is carried on in Mahabubnagar district where Thunga grass is grown abundently (5) *Bedriware* of Hyderabad is an important cottage industry of Andhra Pradesh. The basic material is an alloy of zinc with small proportions of other non-ferrous metals (6) *Silver filigree* work flourishes in Karimnagar district, which shows exceedingly delicate workmanship of local goldsmiths (7) *Himroo fabrics* have a solid coloured ground of satin of twill decorated with figurative motifs. Himroo cloth makes very attractive ladies' coats, tunics, blouses, shawls, etc. (8) Lace-industry is carried on extensively in Narsapur and Palakole (9) *Glass bangles and beads* industry is very flourishing in Andhra Pradesh. This is done in Papanaidupet in the Chittoor district. (10) Ivory carving is another important handicraft.

Jammu & Kashmir—The cottage textile industry covering mainly wool and silk is an important industry. In the textile industry' the products worth mentioning are : *tweeds, gabba, pattu, pile carpet, namdas* and *shawls* (*pashmina & toosh*). The other industries in the State are furniture made of walnut, cane and willow works, wood carving, papier-mache work, jewellery and stone polishing.

Madhya Pradesh—Handloom is the most important industry in this State. The products well-known throughout the country are the *chanderi* and *maheswari* saris. The other industries of some importance are : tanning and leather work, confectionery, fruit canning, brass and copper utensils and oil and soap. The hand-weaving industry is the only important cottage industry of Bhopal.

Madras—This is the most important handloom-weaving State in the country with 4.50 lakhs of looms. About 20 lakhs of people depend on this industry for their livelihood. The most noted of its handloom cotton products are *sarees, dhoties,* towels, sheetings and

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coatings and shirtings. The other industries in order of merit are : hosiery, carpets and druggets, blankets and *cumblies*, printing, tanning and leather goods, food processing, non-ferrous metal ware, steel goods, matches, toys etc.

Manipur—Handloom weaving industry is the most important cottage industry.

Mysore—is one of the leading States in the field of cottage industries. Handloom industry is the leading industry of the State. The most famous of its textile products are *silk sarees*, blankets, carpets, druggets and silk in running length The other industries in the order of their importance are sericulture, and products including carving and inlay in ivory, sandal wood, rose wood and metal, glass bangles, incense and perfumery, leather goods, steel goods, soap, wooden, clay and lacquered toys and food processing.

Orissa—Handloom industry is a noted industry of Orissa. The other noted industries are silver filigree, ivory, horn and soap stone, tanning and leather goods and wooden utensils.

Punjab—The important industry of the State is handloom industry, and most noted textile products are furnishing fabrics, blankets and hosiery. The other important industries are furniture, wood carving, jewellery, food processing, sports goods, non-ferrous metal ware and a variety of steel and engineering goods, leather goods, bangles and hosiery industry. Carpet-making is also a flourishing industry of Punjab.

Rajasthan—The handloom industry is, of course, the most important of all. Its noted textile products are *printed sarees* and scarves, tie and dye carpets and *niwar*. Rajasthan is the biggest wool-producing State of India : Jodhpur and Jaipur are famous for the manufacture of embroidered shoes. Jaipur produces the best type of brass work in the whole of India. The other industries are art products, papier-mache, marble stone and ivory work, leather goods and toys.

Kerala—Great stride has been made with regard to some cotton industries, such as, handloom textiles, coir and coir mattings, grass and screw pine mats, ivory, wool products, etc.

Tripura—Besides handloom textiles, the other industries are cane and bamboo work, coir matting, oil pressing, carpentry, smithy, pottery, *bidi* making.

Uttar Pradesh—Silk industry is engaged in the production of gold and silver thread broacades, silk sarees and scarves. Mirzapur *carpets* are produced in wide and varied designs. *Dyeing and cloth-printing* is a flourishing industry in Lucknow and Furrukhabad. Moradabad is famous for *ornamental brassware*. The manufacture of *glass bangles*, which is one of the important cottage industries in this State, is made at Ferozabad. Khurja *glazed pottery* is now known all over India. Other important industry is *fibre industry*, such as making of baskets, chicks and cane furniture. *Gur* making is the biggest cottage industry in U. P. Other cottage industries of U. P. are zari and embroidery of Agra, Pakki Kelai of Moradabad, blankets of Nazimdabad and Almora, sports goods of Meerut and gold threads of Varanasi.

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West Bengal—There are 97,151 handlooms and 1,198 power-looms in the State. The most famous textile products are silk and cotton *sarees* and *dhoties*. The other industries are jute and wool weaving, sericulture, tanning and leather goods, brass and bell metal utensils, steel and engineering goods, sports goods, ceramics, cutlery, furniture, art products including horn, ivory and wood. Besides these, there has been considerable development in hand-made paper, palm gur, mat, bee-keeping, etc.

BHOODAN MOVEMENT

The Bhoodan movement, started in 1951, seeks to bring about, what we may call, a peaceful agrarian revolution in the country. The movement consists of the collection of land from land-owners as 'gifts', and distribution to the landless.

The idea of this voluntary donation of land to landless peasants was initiated by Acharya Vinoba Bhabe, a sincere disciple of Mahatma Gandhi, during one of his visits to the Hyderabad State on 18th April, 1951. On April 18, 1951 at Telangana, a district of Hyderabad which was a centre of a strong communist-sponsored movement for the redistribution of land, some landless workers came to him and complained that though they were willing to work, but they had no land to work on. An idea suddenly flashed in the mind or Vinoba Bhave who at once asked the assembled people whether any one among them would be willing to donate land to the poor landless people. A man sitting silently among the assembled people at once stood up and said that he had been looking for an opportunity to give away one-half of his 200 acres of land all these years. So, this little incident gave start to this agrarian revolution in India.

Describing the aims of his movement, Vinoba Bhave says, "In a just and equitable order of society, land must belong to all. That is why we do not beg for gifts but demand a share to which the poor are rightly entitled. The main objective is to "propagate the right thought,' by which social and economic maladjustments can be corrected without serious conflicts." Vinoba Bhave has also said, "This Bhoodan Yajna is an application of non-violence, an experiment in transformation of life itself. I am only a tool in His hands Who is the Lord of all ages, like even those who will give and those who will receive the gifts. It is a phenomenon inspired by God."

As a first step, landowners are persuaded to donate at least $^1/_6$ of their land to the community pool. It should not be forgotten that this is a non-official movement but it is indirectly supported by the Government.

Under the scheme which was intended to apply the Gandhian principle of non-violance to social and economic problems—a target was fixed to obtain 500 lakh acres of land so that it may be possible to provide some land for cultivation to every rural family. Since the middle of 1957 the movement widened out into *gramdan* i.e.

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donations of entire villages, the ideal being that all land should belong to the village community. Distribution took place at village meetings at which villagers decided whose need was the greatest: if disagreement arose or insufficient land had been allocated, lots were drawn. The land was given in trusteeship, on the understanding that it would not be sold, mortgaged, rented or left fallows, and that, if misused, it should return to the 'pool' for re-distribution. According to the plan, 'Harijans' will be given one-third of the entire land collected. In the redistribution of land, above conditions should be fulfilled.

An appeal was also launched for money to provide agricultural implements for beneficiaries of the scheme. A gift of Rs. 1,200,000 from the Gandhi Memorial Fund for this purpose was announced on July 9, 1955. Several States have rendered active assistance to their movement. In order to fecilitate the donation of redistribution of Bhoodan lands, necessary legislation has been enacted in Bombay, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Delhi and Himachal Pradesh.

In the non-agricultural sector, the movement assumes various forms such as *Sampattidan* (wealth gift), *Shramdan* (labour gift), *Buddhidan* (intelligence-gift), *Jivandan* (gift of one's whole life to the cause) and *Gramdan* (gift of entire land of the village).

Gramdan or the gift of a whole village is the latest phase of Vinoba Bhave's Bhoodan movement. The *gramdan* movement opens up new possibilities of social reconstruction and economic uplift of building up a new social order based on equality and co-operation. In a gramdan village, individual ownership of land ceases and the whole village becomes a unit. The Five-Year Plan also recognises that the practical success which is achieved in the development of *gramdan* villages will have great significance to co-operative village development. The Community Development Project of the Government of India and *gramdan* movement are now having closer co-operation after the decision taken by the Development Commissioners of the Ministry of Community Development. Gramdan villages will now receive preference in the matter of opening community development blocks and starting of other community development activities.

Legislation has been passed for facilitating donation and distribution of *bhoodan* lands in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Delhi and Himachal Pradesh.

The first village to come under *gramdan* is Mangroth in Uttar Pradesh. In Bihar *gramdan* villages have established their own grain centres, have even pooled their debts and shared expenses in social ceremonies like marriage. One of the major criticisms of this movement is that its insistence on providing land to everyone who wants it, will result in extreme fragmentation of land surface; secondly, it will affect its productivity and damp the flow of marketable surplus from the rural to the urban sector. Moreover no attention is paid to rehabilitation of the new recipients of land through arrangements for the supply of credit, draught animals and other implements of farming.

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FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE BY STATE GOVERNMENTS FOR 1959—60.

(*In thousands of rupees*)

Andhra Pradesh ..	0.5	Madras	13.8
Bihar	50.0	Orissa	335.2
Bombay	45.0	Uttar Pradesh ..	50.0
Madhya Pradesh ..	60.0		

Government of India Assistance

1956-57 .. Rs. 11.92 lakhs 1957-58 .. Rs. 10 lakhs

LAND GIFTS (BHOODAN AND GRAMDAN) 1959

	Area donated in acres	*Area distributed in acres*	*Gramdan (No.)*
Andhra Pradesh ..	2,41,950	95,278	481
Assam ..	23,196	225	127
Bihar ..	21,22,910	2,42,253	153
Bombay (Gujarat, Saurashtra and Vidarbha)	1,65,501	64,712	65
Delhi ..	396	157	—
Himachal Pradesh ..	1,568	21	—
Madhya Pradesh ..	4,04,205	38,146	74
Mysore ..	19,989	2,694	66
Punjab ..	19,929	5,653	2
Rajasthan ..	4,28,173	81,101	234
Tamilnad ..	70,823	2,349	254
Uttar Pradesh ..	4,11,484	1,27,835	59
Utkal ..	3,93,466	1,18,335	1,946
West Bengal ..	12,681	3,673	26
	44,09,636	8,40,909	4,565

INDIA'S COMMERCE

PATTERN OF INDIAN TRADE—Throughout the British period, India normally had a favourable balance of trade. The preponderance of manufactured articles in the country's imports and that of agricultural commodities and raw materials in its exports was a feature of India's foreign trade. Till 1939, before the outbreak of World War II, India was mostly an importer of manufactured goods and exporter of agricultural commodities and raw materials. The value of our exports exceeded the volume of our imports ; so we had a favourable balance of trade.

Notable changes have taken place in respect of all these charac-

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teristics of our foreign trade as a result of the industrial development of the country during and after war. Before World War II, we were mostly an exporter of minerals and agricultural commodities, but now we are important importers of foodgrains and industrial raw materials. Before 1939, 75 p.c. of our imports comprised manufactured articles in the form of consumer goods ; at present the bulk of our imports consists of machinery, metals, chemicals, oilman's stores and industrial raw materials

THE GOVERNMENT FUNCTIONS AND ORGANISATION—The Ministry of Commerce and Industry is responsible for the regulation and fostering of trade and commerce, the control and regulation of imports and exports, negotiation of trade agreements with foreign countries, determination of tariffs, commercial representation overseas, promotion of exports and participation at Government level in fairs and exhibitions held abroad. These are one side of the Ministry's activities. The other side consists of 'Industries.' Some of the Agencies of the Ministry for Commerce and Trade are—

(1) **Office of the Chief Controller of Imports and Exports**—It is responsible for the execution of the Government's policies relating to import and export control. Branch offices of this organisation are functioning in Amritsar, Bombay, Calcutta, Cochin, Madras, New Delhi, Pondicherry, Rajkot, Shillong, Visakhapatnam and Kandla.

(2) **Office of the Economic Adviser to the Government of India**—The Economic Adviser renders technical advice to the Ministry on all economic matters. He collects, studies and interprets various economic information having bearing on India's foreign trade and commerce.

(3) **Export Promotion Advisory Council**—has been set up by the Government to advise on matters relating to export policy and procedure with particular reference to the promotion of exports. There is also a Standing Committee of the Export Promotion Advisory Council to advise Government on the day to-day problems affecting exports.

(4) **Import Advisory Council**—is primarily responsible for advising the Government of India in all matters of general policy relating to import control.

(5) **Port Committees at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras**—These are advisory committees which advise the local Export Trade Controllers on all major problems connected with the export trade. They are considered as branches of the Export Advisory Council.

EFFORTS TO INCREASE INDIA'S FOREIGN TRADE—In view of the critical unfavourable balance of trade and gradual deterioration of foreign exchange position, the Government of India are making all-out efforts to increase India's export trade. The methods adopted for export promotion are as follows—

1. *Foreign Trade Board* and *Directorate of Export Promotion*—were created in June 1957 to coordinate all work relating to the development of India's foreign trade, particularly promotion of exports.

2. *Export Promotion Advisory Council*—was set up to advise

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on matters relating to export policy and procedure with particular reference to the promotion of exports.

3. *Export Risks Insurance Corporation*—was established in September, 1957, with headquarters at Bombay. The Corporation offers facilities to the exporters to insure risks, not normally covered by commercial insurance companies.

4. *Exhibitions and Fairs*—There are three forms of this export promotion—(1) participation in international exhibitions /fairs (2) organising wholly Indian exhibitions (3) maintaining trade centres and show-rooms abroad. The Director of Exhibitions looks after the visual commercial publicity for Indian goods.

5. *Foreign Trade Board*—was set up in 1956 with the object of considering various export promotion problems, and also a *Directorate of Export Promotion* (as the Board's executive agency in the matter of export promotion).

(6) *Quality Control*—To ensure quality control, compulsory grading before export has been introduced under the Agricultural Produce (Grading and Marketing) Act in respect of certain agricultural commodities, such as, tobacco, hemp, raw wool, lemon grass oil, etc., etc.

(7) Special rail and shipping facilities are also provided for the movement of export commodities.

(8) *Trade Agreements*—Bilateral trade agreements are being concluded with many foreign countries. The main objective of these agreements is to reduce the strain on country's limited supplies of foreign exchange by securing essential goods from non-dollar areas in return for India's staple exports. These trade agreements are of two types, namely, trade agreements with quantitative commitments for export and import of goods and general trade arrangements through exchange of letters of commercial goodwill. India has now trade agreements with as many as 26 countries.

(9) *Trade Delegations*—are sent to different countries for exploring the possibilities of the expansion of India's trade with those countries and for the establishment of closer economic and commercial ties. Trade Delegations from abroad visit India every year on trade-and trade-*cum*-goodwill mission.

(10) *Commercial Services*—India has Indian commercial repre- representatives have not so far been appointed, Indian trade interests sentations at twenty-two centres. In the countries where trade re- are being looked after by the Indian Ambassadors, Consul-Generals, etc. India's trade representatives answer trade enquiries, actively encourage the establishment of trade relations between genuine firms on either side, publicise Indian products by various methods.

(11) *General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade* (*GATT*)—India is one of the contracting parties of the GATT. This has helped in various ways to facilitate the expansion of foreign trade in different countries.

(12) *State Trading Corporation*—The Government of India set up on May 18, 1956, the State Trading Corporation as a private limited company. It has an authorised capital of Rs. one crore, divided into 100,000, shares of Rs. 100 each. All shares are

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owned by Government of India. The objects of the Corporation are to organise and effect exports from and imports into India of all such goods and commodities as the company may from time to time determine. The principal endeavour of the Corporation has been to diversify and supplement the country's foreign trade. New markets have been developed for export and fresh sources for importing the country's essential requirements have been tapped.

Besides the organisation at Headquarters, it has regional offices at Calcutta, Madras, Bombay and Visakhapatnam.

(13) *Export Promotion Councils* have been set up for different industries such as—(a) *Cotton Textiles Export Promotion Council* (b) *Silk and Rayon Textiles Promotion Council* (c) *Engineering Export Promotion Council* (d) *Plastic & Linoleum Export Promotion Council* (e) *Shellac Export Promotion Council* (f) *Cashew and Pepper Export Promotion Council* (g)*Leather Export Promotion Council* (h) *Mica Export Promotion Council* (i) *Sports goods Export Promotion Council* (j) *Chemicals and Allied Products Export Promotion* Council (k) *Tobacco Export Promotion Council.*

Export Promotion Councils are given grants-in-aid by the Government. The grants-in-aid are paid to the Export Promotion Councils at the maximum rate of double the industry's contribution except in the case of Sports Goods Export Promotion Council whose grants-in-aid is 9 : 1.

(14) *Fiscal Reliefs*—has been introduced in the form of refunds of taxes paid earlier on the materials and components.

(15) Relaxtion of existing restrictions on a number of export commodities.

IMPORT AND EXPORT CONTROLS—Import and Export controls were first introduced in May 1940 as a war measure under the Defence of India Rules. Although the latter expired in September, 1946, controls were continued for one year under an Emergency Act. In 1947, Import and Export (Control) Act was passed, providing new legal basis for Import and Export Controls. The legislation is being renewed from time to time.

Import Control Policy—The basic objective of Indian import controls is to allocate India's limited supply of foreign exchange among its most essential import needs. In general, capital goods, capital repairs, and raw materials required by industry are given the highest priority in granting of import licences. Licences are granted for only a few types of consumer goods and then only for limited quantities. Import licences are issued less freely for goods which compete with products of an Indian industry that the Government is seeking to protect. Import control also involves directional controls, in that imports from soft-currency areas are more freely lincenced than from dollar and other hard currency areas. Licences to import from dollar areas are generally issued only when the product is not obtainable on comparable terms from soft-currency areas.

For the present, due to the rapid depletion of foreign exchange reserves, the Government of India have adopted a more restrictive import policy. This restrictive policy of import is being gradually intensified with the result that the drastic cuts in imports of non-

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essential consumer goods are being made every year. This policy began in the first half of 1957.

India's import policy is revised twice a year to establish new quotas for the various licences to be issued during the following 6 months.

Licences are of two types : (1) *open general licences* and (2) *individual licences.* The O. G. L. takes the form of an announcement granting general permission to import particular commodities into India from specified countries. Individual licences specify the importer, the value and/or quantity of the designated commodity and the country or currency area of source.

Export Control Policy—The Government of India in recent years have established *Export Promotion Councils* for different commodities. The main objectives of the export control are the following—(1) to encourage exports consistent with internal requirements, (2) to canalise exports to yield sufficient dollars and other hard currencies, (3) to encourage exports of processed goods, (4) to conserve supplies for internal consumption of those commodities which are in serious shortage, (5) to control the rate of exploitation of India's mineral resources.

Export control policy is being liberalised and about 200 export items were freed from control during 1958-59. The Government granted a number of fiscal concessions in order to make Indian goods more competitive in foreign markets.

INDIAN EXCHANGE CONTROL—Foreign exchange has been under control in India since 1939. This exchange control gives the Government wide powers to control transactions in foreign exchange and securities and in the import or export of bullion or currency. Transactions between India and all foreign countries are subject to exchange regulations, although regulations vary somewhat as applied to different countries. The object of the Indian Exchange Control is to secure a balance in international payments account. There are restrictions on imports but remittances are freely allowed against permitted imports. In fact, a specific or a general licence to import any goods carries with it the right to remit funds. The regulations also allow remittance of profits, interest, dividends, savings of foreign companies and foreign nationals carrying on business in the country. There is a quota of exchange for travel within the soft currency countries, though travel to dollar areas has to be specially authorised. Investment of Indian capital in foreign countries is not permitted except in the case of opening of branches of trading, banking and insurance companies.

Reserve Bank of India is in charge of the overall administration of exchange control. However, it has delegated considerable authority over day-to-day operations to those banks and their branches which have been authorised to deal in foreign exchange. All exchanges must be bought and sold at prices prescribed by the Reserve Bank of India.

INTERNAL TRADE—India's coastal trade has been divided into the following maritime blocks—(1) West Bengal (2) Orissa (3) Madras and Andhra (4) Kerala (5) Cochin Port (6) Bombay (7)

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Saurashtra, Okha and Kutch. The trade between ports in the same maritime block is classed 'internal trade' and that between one maritime block and another as 'external trade'. In 1956-57 the total coast-wise trade was valued at Rs. 343 crores, consisting of Rs. 180-crore imports and Rs. 163-crore exports.

DIRECTION OF TRADE—United Kingdom and U.S.A. continue to be India's principal buyers as well as suppliers. During 1958 the shares of these two countries, so far as export to India was concerned, was 29.0 per cent and 16.2 per cent respectively. In the import trade, the share of the United Kingdom was 19.6 per cent and that of the U.S.A. 18.8 per cent.

TARIFF COMMISSION—The origin of the Tariff Commission is to be found in the recommendations of the Fiscal Committee established by the Govt. of India by a resolution on 20th April, 1949. The Fiscal Commission recommended the establishment of permanent Tariff Commission in place of temporary Tariff Boards to examine claims of protection of Indian goods.

Its Constitution—The membership of the Tariff Commission comprises not less than three and not more than five members, one of whom is to act as Chairman. Not more than two additional members may be appointed for special purposes. Assessors with special knowledge may also be appointed by the Central Government to assist the Commission in specific enquiries.

The Commission is a quasi-judical body and can, as such, summon and enforce attendance, examine on oath and compel the production of documents.

The functions of the Commission—The Commission may—

(a) consider claims of protection from industries which have not yet started production ;

(b) consider the question of protection for agricultural as well as other industries ;

(c) consider requests for protection by means other than an increase in tariff rates, *e.g.*, by concessional duties in respect of raw materials and by subsidies ;

(d) enquire and report generally on the efforts of protection on prices and cost of living and on anomalies arising from the operation of protective or revenue duties ;

(e) act in respect of certain classes of enquiries, *sou motu* ;

(f) decide on the duration of protection ;

(g) enquire price of particular commodities whether protected or not ;

(h) investigate the following matters—increase or decrease in customs or other duties for protective purposes, dumping, undue advantage being taken of tariff protection by protected industries ;

(i) consider the effect of protection on the general price level, the cost of living or the country's economy generally ;

(j) consider anomalies resulting from the working of protective duties ;

(k) enquire, at prescribed intervals, of the effects of protection on a given industry with reference to cost of production, scale of out-

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put, quality, prospects of future expansion and the competitive position of the industry.

INDIA'S FOREIGN EXCHANGE RESERVES

(*In Lakhs of Rupees*)

	Assets	*Movements* (increase + decrease —)		*Assets*	*Movements* (increase + decrease —)
1950-51 ..	951,41		1957-58 ..	421,22	—259,88
1955-56 ..	824,61	+28,53	1958-59 ..	378,92	—42,30
1956-57 ..	681,10	+10,47	1959-60 ..	362,87	—16,05
		—143,51			

(*Report on Currency and Finance*, 1959-60).

INDIA'S STERLING BALANCES

(*In Crores of Rupees*)

Average of Fridays	*Foreign Securities*	*Balance held abroad*	*Sterling Balances*
1948-49 ..	907.47	307.78	1215.25
1949-50 ..	647.04	180.91	827.95
1950-51 ..	624.70	207.70	832.40
1951-52 ..	625.27	187.14	812.41
1952-53 ..	564.40	133.56	697.96
1953-54 ..	594.02	123.31	717.33
1954-55 ..	648.81	87.53	736.34
1955-56 ..	656.52	66.96	723.48
1956-57 ..	545.61	64.77	610.38
1957-58 ..	329.65	40.47	320.12

INDIA'S BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

(*All areas—current account*)

Crores of Rupees

All areas	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
Imports c.i.f.	761.4	1099.5	1233.6	1029.6	923.7
Exports f.o.b.	640.2	635.2	668.5	575.9	623.3
Trade balance	—121.2	—464.3	—565.1	—453.7	—300.4
Official Donations (net)	+45.0	+39.5	+34.1	+34.4	+35.6
Other invisibles (net)	+88.5	+112.5	+104.0	+91.7	+84.0
Current account (net)	+12.3	—312.3	—427.0	—327.6	—180.8

(*Report on Currency and Finance*, 1959-60).

INDIA'S BALANCE OF TRADE IN MERCHANDISE

(*By Sea, Air and Land—Private and Government*)

(*Crores of Rupees*)

	Imports	*Exports*	*Balance of Trade*
1950-51 ..	623,36	601,35	—22,01
1955-56 ..	704,81	609,41	—95,40
1956-57 ..	832,45	612,52	—219,93
1957-58 ..	993,58	621,31	—372,27
1958-59 ..	804,55	570,14	—234,41
1959-60 ..	851,42	645,72	—205,70

(*Report on Currency and Finance*, 1959-60).

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EXPORTS TO PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES
(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957
U. K.	12,576	14,819	17,611	16,824	18,699	16,011
U. S. A.	..11,649	9,503	8,555	9,242	5,980	13,139
Japan	2,520	2,605	1,626	2,624	3,071	2,721
Australia	2,345	1,594	2,269	2,606	2,228	2,468
U.S.S.R.	..	..	..	247	1,219	1,748
Germany (W)	1,243	1,037	1,465	1,581	1,503	1,609
Canada	1,274	1,392	1,507	1,555	1,572	1,392
Burma	2,349	2,045	1,644	1,357	1,018	1,319
Pakistan	4,735	754	994	872	809	668

IMPORTS FROM PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES
(*By Sea, Air and Land : In Lakhs of Rs.*)

	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958
U. K.	14,050	14,607	16,026	20,788	23,850	16,835
U. S. A.	8,953	7,385	8,876	9,421	7,032	16,146
Germany (W)	2,878	3,524	5,378	8,182	12,282	9,395
Japan	1,246	1,665	3,110	4,327	5,442	3,966
Italy	2,091	2,127	1,627	2,612	3,039	2,557
France	1,054	965	1,663	1,954	2,869	1,696
USSR	..	..	304	1,491	2,268	2,171
Australia	2,656	1,424	1,848	1,165	1,641	1,532
Pakistan	1,944	1,782	2,508	2,093	1,340	628

FOREIGN TRADE
(*Total of sea, air and land trade, excluding transist trade ; the land trade with Nepal, Tibet, Sikkim and Bhutan excluded—In Lakhs of Rupees*).

	Imports(—)	*Exports*(+)	*Balance of Trade*
1951-52 ..	971,20	732,96	—238,24
1952-53 ..	701,83	577,31	—124,52
1953-54 ..	610,24	530,63	—79,61
1954-55 ..	656,42	592,51	—63,91
1955-56 ..	725,41	608,91	—116,50
1956-57 ..	848,76	619,63	—229,13
1957-58 ..	1,036,37	635,78	—400,59
1958-59 ..	799,58	569,79	—229,78
1959-60 ..	867,72	643,63	—224,09

(*Reserve Bank Bulletin, Sept.*, 1960).

INDIA'S OVERALL BALANCE OF PAYMENTS—CURRENT ACCOUNT
(*In Crores of Rupees*)

	Credit	*Debit*	*Net*		*Credit*	*Debit*	*Net*
1955-56	889.9	877.6	+12.3	1958-59	827.5	1155.0	—327.6
1956-57	896.6	1210.9	—312.3	1959-60	870.2	1051.0	—180.8
1957-58	922.4	1349.4	—427.0				

(*Reserve Bank Bulletin, Sept.*, 1960).

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Index number of Exports (1952-53=100)

	1957	1958	1959
General Volume Index of Total Exports	94 119	93 108	91 119

Index number of Imports (1952-53=100)

	1957	1958	1959
General Volume Index of Total Imports	98 156	92 140	90 148

PROHIBITION IN INDIA

BEGINNING OF PROHIBITION IN INDIA—From the days of the first Satyagraha Movement by Mahatma Gandhi in 1921, prohibition has been one of the main items of the Congress Movement in the country. The Article 47 of the Indian Constitution has laid down as a Directive Principle of State Policy that "State shall endeavour to bring about prohibition of the consumption except for medicinal purposes, of intoxicating drinks and drugs which are injurious to health." In 1937, when popular ministries came into power in majority of provinces, the experiments in prohibition were then first carried out. Comprehensive legislation was passed in five provinces, i.e., Madras, C. P. and Berar, Bihar, Orissa and N. W. F. P. between 1937 and 1939. With the withdrawal of popular ministries in 1939, the movement received a setback. The New Constitution of India again gave a fresh life to this movement in 1950.

It has been stated by the Government in 1960 that almost all the States in India have introduced a phased programme of prohibition in areas other than declared dry. States like Madras and Bombay which observe total prohibition, have made the laws stringent and have enhanced punishment.

Present State of Prohibition in India—Following are the conditions of prohibition if India—

The States of *Bombay and Madras* observe total prohibition.

The Government of *Jammu* and *Kashmir* have expressed inability to introduce Prohibition, as the State economy depends on tourist traffic.

In *West Bengal*, no prohibition programme has been taken up, but has imposed a dry day in industrial areas and reduced the hours of transaction in the excise shops.

The *State and Madras* observe total prohibition.
Government is in entire agreement with the resolution on Prohibition passed by the Indian National Congress in April, 1954.

Bihar has constituted a Prohibition Board to consider the details of policy and to review the progress of revision from time to time. A Technical Committee has also been set up.

In *Andhra Pradesh* Prohibition is in force throughout the State. In former Hyderabad State, it has been decided to shift all toddy and liquor shops from populated areas.

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In *Delhi* there is a ban on the sale of liquor to a person below the age of 25. Other restrictive measures include : a ban on public drinking in hotels, restaurants, bars and theatres ; two dry days in a week ; a number of other days important from national or religious point of view have been declared as dry days ; ban on advertisement of liquor in the Delhi State and closure of five out of seven country shops.

The saleable strength of country liquor and the number of licences have been reduced ; clubs have been licensed and sale of foreign liquor in these clubs is confined to members only. Assessment fee has been considerably increased. The possession limit of foreign liquor and beer has been reduced to two or eight bottles respectively. Duty on all varieties of country liquor has been increased by 5 nP. per gallon.

Bombay—Prohibition is in operation in the entire old State of Bombay. In pursuance of their decision to extend total prohibition to the remaining areas of the new State of Bombay all new Divisions have gone dry.

.Partial Prohibition has been in force in *Madhya Pradesh* since 1938. Total Prohibition of all intoxicants is the policy of the State Government towards which all efforts are being directed.

Uttar Pradesh—Total Prohibition has been in force in eleven districts of U.P., namely, Etah, Manipuri, Badaun, Furrukhabad, Jaunpur, Pratabgarh, Una, Kanpur, Fatehpur and Rae Bareli out of a total of 51 districts and partial prohibition in the three pilgrim centres of Vrindaban, Hardwar and Rishikesh. It has prohibited the sale of *ganja*. There will also be no sale of opium hack in the dry area of U.P.

Mysore—Prohibition is now in force in six districts and four taluks of the State of Mysore. Tapping has been prohibited in dry areas from 1st July, 1954. It has adopted several measures, such as, gradual raising of duty and licence fee, shifting of shops one mile away from the prohibition areas, reduction of issue of opium to shops and ban on advertisements of liquor.

Kerala—Nine taluks of the former Travancore Cochin and the entire Malabar district have been declared dry.

Orissa—has enacted a comprehensive legislation on prohibition in 1956 ; the districts of Cuttack, Balasore, Puri, Ganjan and Koraput are under prohibition. In other areas the number of liquor and drug shops is being progressivaly reduced.

Punjab has prohibited the sale of liquor to students of all ages and to persons below 25 years. Grant of licences for retail vend of foreign spirit for consumption on the premises is prohibited, except with the approval of the Government. The State has prohibited the printing, publishing or otherwise displaying any advertisement or soliciting the use of or offering the use of any intoxicant.

Rajasthan—Orders have been issued that country liquor shops be gradually removed from the living quarters or main streets.

Assam—The Assam Liquor Prohibition Act has been extended to South Kamrup, portion of the Gauhati sub-division. In areas other than Kamrup, various measures have been adopted, such as,

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reduction of the sale of liquor to one bottle from three at a time. The sale of 30 nP. liquor has been prohibited in some ten gardens.

Himachal Pradesh—There is total prohibition in certain areas ; in other areas, the quota of country liquor has been reduced and number of excise shops has been brought down.

Andaman and Nicobar Islands—Liquor shops have been closed for five days in a week. The import of foreign liquor has been banned and toddy shops closed.

Tripura—A policy of gradual prohibition is being followed in all areas of the State.

Manipur—Only general educative measures have been undertaken for the spread of prohibition in the territory.

Total prohibition of non-medical oral consumption of opium except for medical reasons and in respect of habitual addicts and registered patients came into force on April 1, 1959. There has been complete prohibition of *Charas* since 1946. The sale of *Ganja* has been prohibited throughout Uttar Pradesh from April 1, 1956. Restrictions on sale of *Ganja* is in operation in almost all the States.

PROHIBITION ENQUIRY COMMITTEE'S REPORT—Prohibition Enquiry Committee was appointed by the Planning Commission in 1954 under the chairmanship of Mr. Sriman Narayan.

The Report of the Committee was out on October 25, 1955. Its main recommendations are as follows—

1. The prohibition should become law throughout India by April 1, 1958.

2. A Central Committee should be constituted to review the progress of prohibition.

The Report of the Committee was considered by the Central and State Governments and was broadly approved of by the National Development Council in 1956. By a resolution, Lok Sabha on March 31, 1956 affirmed that prohibition be regarded an integral part of the Second Plan and recommended the formation of a programme to bring about nationwide prohibition speedily and effectively.

Programme & Policy—The programme formulated by the *Planning Commssion* in this respect is as follows—(1) Each State is left to fix a target date and to formulate its policy in accordance with local conditions and circumstances ; (2) in determining the country's prohibition policy, enforcement measures, public opinion and provision for alternative recreations should be the decisive factor. The commission has, however, recommended the adoption of following measures—discontinuance of advertisements and other inducements, stoppage of drinking in public premises, setting up of technical committees to draw up phased programmes, etc., etc.

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PUBLIC FINANCE

INDIA'S PUBLIC FINANCE—Under the Constitution of India, the power to raise funds has been divided between the Centre and the States. According to the provisions of the Constitution of India, the accounts of the Union Government are kept in two separate parts, namely, the *Consolidated Fund* and the *Public Account*. All revenues received, loans raised, and money received in repayment of loans by the Union Government form the Consolidated Fund of India. No money can be withdrawn from the Fund without the authority of an Act of Parliament. All other receipts and disbursements, such as, deposits, service funds, remittances, etc., go to the Public Account, which is not subject to the vote of the Parliament. To meet unforeseen expenses, a *Contingency Fund* has also been established. Under Art, 267 (1) of the Constitution, this fund provides an imprest which can be drawn upon, pending authorisation of the expenditure by Parliament. Similarly, there are *Consolidated Fund, Public Account* and *Contingency Fund* for each State.

The Constitution provides for the appointment of a *Comptroller and Auditor-General of India* by the President to keep watch on the finances and accounts of the Union and the States. It is his responsibility to see that the expenses voted by Parliament or the Legislature of a State and laid down in the Appropriation Act are not exceeded and varied. The Constitution also enjoins that the expenditure of each government should be approved by its Legislature.

Railways have their own funds and accounts and their budget is presented separately to the Parliament. The appropriations and disbursements of the Railway budget are also subject to the parliamentary and audit control.

Towards the end of February, every year the estimates of receipts and expenditure of the Union Government are presented to the Parliament by the Central Government and before the legislatures by the State Governments and no expenditure can be incurred without a specific grant being made for that purpose. Certain routine items of expenditure, which cannot await legislative sanction, are, however, non-votable. These items are chargeable to the Consolidated Fund of India or those of the State Governments concerned.

The Indian Constitution provides that the audit authorities who are independent of the executive, should scrutinise the expenditure of the Central Government and State Governments. The Constitution also enjoins that an account of the expenditure of each Government should be approved by its Legislature.

UNION REVENUE & EXPENDITURE—The main source of the Central revenues are *customs duties, union excise duties, corporation tax, income tax, capital gains tax, wealth tax, gift tax, personal expenditure tax, super tax*. Besides, the railways and posts and telegraphs contribute to the general revenue of the Centre. The nationalised Reserve Bank and the Mint also provide some amount of revenue to the Government. Civil Administration (fees, fines and

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other incomes of various ministries), Civil Works (various public works owned and maintained by the Central Government) and other miscellaneous sources also add to the revenue of the centre.

The *expenditure* of the Central Government is divided into Defence, Civil and Capital expenditure. The defence expenditure is incurred on the army, navy and air force and non-effective charges which include pensions, annuities etc., are paid by the Defence Department.

Civil expenditure covers expenditure on civil administration, debt services, refugee rehabilitation, food subsidies, etc. Under Capital expenditure are included the expenditures for the development of industries, railways, posts and telegraphs, aviation, river projects, etc. The Capital expenditure constitutes a separate capital budget which shows such items as expenditure on the discharge of permanent debt, advances and loans to the States.

Revenue of the States—The *main heads of revenue in the States* are (1) taxes and duties levied by the State Governments ; (2) civil administration and civil works ; (3) State undertakings ; (4) taxes shared with the Centre and (5) grants received from the Centre. Land revenue, motor vehicles tax, entertainment tax, electricity duty, agricultural income-tax and other taxes and duties account for nearly one-half of the total revenue receipts of the States. More than half of the income tax levied by the Central Government accrue to the States. Taxes on agricultural income constitute an exclusively State subject. Other State sources include excise duties on liquors, opium and other narcotics, sales tax, taxes on consumption or sale of electricity, taxes on goods and passengers carried by road or on inland waterways, taxes on certain vehicles including tram cars, taxes on animals and boats, tolls, taxes on professions, trades, callings and employment, capitation taxes, stamp duties and taxes on luxuries and amusements.

FINANCE COMMISSION—Art. 280 lays down that the President shall, within two years from the commencement of the Constitution and thereafter, at the expiration of every fifth year or at such earlier time as the President considers necessary, constitute a Finance Commission. It shall be the duty of the Commission to make recommendations as to (*a*) the distribution between the Union and the States of the net proceeds of taxes which are to be or may be divided between them and the allocation between the States of the respective shares of such proceeds ; (*b*) the principles which should govern the grants-in-aid of the revenues of the States out of the Consolidated Fund of India and (*c*) the continuance or modification of the terms of any agreement entered into by the Government of India with the Govt. of any Part B States ; (*d*) any other matter referred to the Commission by the President in the interest of sound finance.

First Finance Commission was appointed in November 1951. The following are the recommendations—(1) the percentage of the net proceeds of income tax to be allocated to the States should be raised from 50 to 55 p.c. of the divisible pool (2) excise duties on tobacco (including cigarettes, cigars, etc.), matches and vegetable pro-

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ducts are the most suitable for distribution. The Commission recommended that 40 p.c. of the net proceeds of the duty levied on these items should be allocated to the States. (3) The Commission recommended grants-in-aid in the case of jute export duty and that these grants-in-aid should be of fixed sums. (4) Other types of grants-in-aid. The Commission recommended that (*a*) grants-in-aid are to be given according to the budgetary need of the States (*b*) maintenance of the standard of social services is to serve as an important principle in the case of deciding grants-in-aid (*c*) certain special burdens of national importance, like the consequences of partition would entitle a State to Central grants-in-aid (*d*) the Central Government should pay grants-in-aid to less advanced States.

Second Finance Commission was appointed under Article 280 (1) of the Constitution in June, 1956 which submitted their report in September, 1957. The Commission made recommendations regarding the distribution of divisible Central taxes, the principles which should govern the grants-in-aid from the Central to the States and the continuance or modification of the terms of agreements entered into by the Central Government and the States. The recommendations of the Commission provide for a devolution of about Rs. 140 crores per year as against an average sum of Rs. 93 crores received by the States under the first Finance Commission's recommendations.

Third Finance Commission—has been set up in 1960 with Sri G. L. Mehta as Chairman and Sri G. R. Kamat as member-secretary with three other members.

The following are the recommendations which were accepted by the Government—(1) regarding the p.c. of net proceeds in any financial year of taxes on income, other than agricultural income, to be assigned to the States, the Commission felt that an increase from 55 p.c. to 60 p.c. was justified in view of the unanimous desire of the States. (2) As regards sharing of excise duties, Commission widened the range of commodities on which excise duties are to be distributed from three to eight, but reduced the p.c. to be distributed from 40 p.c. to 25 p.c.

Transfer of Revenue to States—Transfer of Central revenues to States has become a significant feature of the Indian Finance. The total shares of Central taxes going to the States have more than doubled during last four years. The table below gives a table of payments to the States since 1955-56.

(*In Crores of Rupees*)

	Union Excise duties	*Income tax*	*Estate duty*	*Tax on railway passengers, fare*	*Total*
1955-56 ..	16.5	55.2	1.9	..	73.6
1956-57 ..	18.2	58.8	2.4	..	79.4

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1957-58	..	40.2	73.5	2.4	4.8	120.9
1958-59	..	73.0	75.8	2.4	10.9	162.1
1959-60 (R.E.)	..	74.7	79.3	2.8	13.1	169.9
1960-61 (B.E.)	..	74.5	52.1	2.9	12.6	142.1

UNION GOVERNMENT BUDGET

REVENUE ACCOUNT—1960-61 Budget Estimates—On the basis of existing taxation, the budget estimates for 1960-61 place revenue and expenditure at Rs. 802 crores and Rs. 886 crores respectively, leaving a deficit for Rs. 84 crores. The deficit would be reduced to Rs. 60 crores if account is taken of the tax proposals in the budget. The tax revenue accruing to the Centre at Rs. 677 crores (including the effect of budget proposals) shows a rise of Rs. 65 crores over the revised estimates for 1959-60. Of the total rise of Rs. 124 crores in budgeted expenditure over the preceding year, defence expenditure accounts for Rs. 29 crores and civil expenditure for Rs. 95 crores.

The tax proposals for 1960-61 are estimated to yield additional Rs. 24.23 crores. Entire amount would come from indirect taxation, excise duties yielding Rs. 21.73 crores and customs duties Rs. 250 crores.

Capital Account—A feature of the capital account is the progressive improvement during 1958-59 to 1960-61 as a result of a substantial increase under receipts, mainly under external loans as well as internal loans. The deficit which had touched a peak in 1957-58 at Rs. 545 crores, fell to Rs. 223 crores in 1958-59 and is estimated to fall further to Rs. 160 crores in 1959-60 (Revised). In 1960-61 (Budget) the deficit is expected to decline further to Rs. 93 crores. Capital receipts (excluding *ad hoc* Treasury bills) are estimated at Rs. 990 crores in 1960-61 as compared to Rs. 847 crores in 1959-60 (R. E.).

The trends in revenue and expenditure of the Central Government are given below—

(*in crores of rupees*)

	1951-56 (*Total*)	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60 (*Revised*)	1960-61 (*Budget*)
Revenue (a) ..	2,232.6	563.2	673.4	670.2	746.2	825.1 (a)
Expenditure ..	1,983.0	473.8	631.3	675.5	761.6	885.5
Surplus (+) or Deficit (—) ..	+249.6	+89.4	+42.1	—5.3	—15.4	—60.4

(a) Including the effect of budget proposals, subsequent concessions are not taken into account.

BUDGETARY POSITION OF THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

(*in crores of rupees*)

	1958-59	1959-60 (*Revised*)	1960-61 (*Budget*)
Revenue Account			
Revenue ..	670.21	746.19	825.15
Expenditure ..	675.46	761.58	885.52

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Surplus (+) or Deficit (—)	..	5.25	—15.39	—60.37
Capital Account				
Receipts	..	590.53	847.13	990.42
Disbursements	..	813.20	1,006.90	1,083.37
Surplus (+) or Deficit (—)	..	—222.67	—159.77	—92.95
Miscellaneous (net)*	..	+5.98	+0.69	—0.21
Overall Surplus (+) or deficit (—)	..	—221.94	174.47	—153.53

REVENUE & EXPENDITURE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

(*in crores of rupees*)

REVENUE

		1957-58 (*Accounts*)	1958-59 (*Accounts*)	1959-60 (*Revised*)	1960-61 (*Budget*)
1. Taxes on Income & Expenditure	..	146.40	151.18	151.48	188.84
2. Taxes on Commodities & Services	..	418.32	386.97	443.46	476.02
3. Taxes on Property and Capital Transactions	..	10.61	14.91	16.87	11.91
4. Total tax revenue (1+2+3)	..	557.33	553.06	611.81	676.77
5. Administrative Receipts	..	43.58	53.94	50.69	56.26
6. Net Contribution of Public undertakings	..	36.27	35.96	55.55	52.01
7. Other Revenue	..	18.20	27.25	28.14	40.11
8. Total Revenue (4+5+6+7)	..	673.38	670.21	746.19	825.15

EXPENDITURE

Total Expenditure	..	631.33	675.46	761.58	885.52
Surplus (+) or Deficit (—)	..	+42.06	—5.25	—15.39	—60.37

(*Report on Currency & Finance*, 1959-60).

CAPITAL BUDGET OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

(*crores of Rupees*)

		1957-58	1958-59	1959-60 (Revised)	1960-61 (Budget)
Total Receipts (Excluding Treasury Bills)		297.62	590.53	847.13	990.42
DISBURSEMENTS (Capital Outlay)	..	85.18	36.41	154.71	142.91
Total Non-developmental	..	348.39	365.45	221.66	301.50
Developmental	..	433.57	401.86	376.37	444.41
Total Capital Outlay	..	843.07	813.20	1,006.90	1,083.37
Total Disbursements	..	..	..	..	..
Surplus (+) or Deficit (—)		—545.45	—222.67	—159.77	—92.95

(*Report on Currency & Finance*, 1959-60).

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* Remittence and Transfer of cash between England and India.

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PUBLIC DEBT

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT DEBTS

General—The interest-bearing obligations of the Government of India rose by Rs. 604 crores from Rs. 4,964 crores at the end of 1959-60 to Rs. 5,568 crores at the end of 1959-60. They are expected to rise further by Rs. 733 crores to Rs. 6,301 crores by the end of 1960-61. External obligations stood at Rs. 610 crores at the end of 1959-60, showing a rise of Rs. 239 crores over 1958-59 and of Rs. 469 crores over 1955-56. The internal obligations aggregated Rs. 4,593 crores at the end of 1958-59 and Rs. 4,958 crores at the end of 1959-60. They are estimated to rise further by Rs. 430 crores to Rs. 5,388 crores at the end of March, 1961.

The budget for 1960-61 provides for gross market borrowing of Rs. 250 crores (including receipts from prize bonds). The net borrowing, after taking into account cash repayment of Rs. 109 crores would be Rs. 141 crores.

Interest-yielding assests of the Government of India amounted to Rs. 4,535 crores at the end of March 1960, representing an increase of Rs. 536 crores over the year and constituted four-fifths of the total interest-bearing obligations. During 1960-61, interest-yielding assets are estimated to show a further sharp rise of Rs. 596 crores to Rs. 5,131 crores.

Small Savings—Net receipts from small savings in 1959-60 are provisionally placed higher at Rs. 84 crores as compared to Rs. 80 crores in 1958-59. The slow rise in small savings receipts in the last few years is mainly due to a fall in the receipts under post office savings bank deposits.

Government Balances and ways and means advances—During 1959-60, cash balances of the Government of India with Reserve Bank and at Government Treasuries showed an increase of Rs. 34 crores to Rs. 69 crores as compared to a net decline of Rs. 13 crores to Rs. 34 crores in 1958-59. The Central Government has not resorted to ways and means advances since 1943-44.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA TREASURY BILLS

(Annual & Monthly—Lakhs of Rs.)

	Amount outstanding		*Amount Outstanding*
1950-51	.. 358,02	1957-58	.. 1,295,12
1955-56	.. 595,25	1958-59	.. 1,225,32
1956-57	.. 835,70	1959-60	.. 1,297,60

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INTEREST-BEARING OBLIGATIONS AND INTEREST-YIELDING ASSETS OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

(*Crores of Rs. outstanding at the end of*—)

	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61 (*Budget*)
I. Interest-bearing obligations				
In India (total) ..	4,004.66	4,592.89	4,957.94	5,388.12
In England (total) ..	22.32	30.79	89.96	102.74
Dollar loans ..	159.85	262.31	374.68	535.82
Loans from West Germany	14.00	35.71	80.64	77.99
Loans from other foreign sources ..	..	1.00	8.75	132.75
Total Interest-Bearing Obligations ..	4,216.13	4,963.59	5,567.64	6,301.33
II. Interest-yielding Assets	3,395.87	3,998.96	4,534.71	5,130.82
Cash Securities held on Treasury Account ..	50.75	57.61	55.92	55.69
Balance of total Interest Bearing obligations not covered by above assets ..	769.51	907.02	977.10	1,114.82

(*Report on Currency & Finance*, 1959-60).

DEBT POSITION OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

(*in crores of rupees*)

End of March	*Marketable Rupee Loans*	*Treasury Bills*	*Small savings@*	*Other obligations*	*Total*	*P. C. increase(+) or decrease(—) over previous year*	*External debt*
1951	1,438.46	364.72	326.25	342.81	2,472.24	+2.3	49.81
1956	1,508.67	595.25	572.96	390.29	3,067.17	+7.8	138.81
1957	1,633.61	835.70	631.95	406.55	3,507.81	+14.4	160.98
1958	1,699.50	1,295.12	700.64	422.37	4,117.63	+17.4	211.02
1959	2,180.96	1,225.32	780.01	437.21	4,613.50	+12.3	391.35
1960	2,438.23	1,297.60	856.67	530.99	5,123.49	+10.8	630.50

CENTRAL AND STATE GOVERNMENT LOANS

(*Outstandings as on March* 31, 1960 ; *thousands of Rupees*)

Central Govt. Loans	24,38,23,13	*States*	
„ „ (bearing no interest)	3,85,30	Andhra Pradesh	23,62,95
		Assam	2,76,40
	24,42,08,43	Bihar	11,08,64

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Bombay	72,89,85	Rajasthan	19,54,35
Kerala	13,59,69	Uttar Pradesh	1,29,28,81
Madhya Pradesh	18,03,34	West Bengal	34,85,54
Madras	68,21,68		
Mysore	34,31,03	Total of all States	4,42,29,91
Orissa	10,20,22	Loans bearing no interest	35,32
Punjab	4,22,73		
			4,42,65,23

STATES' BUDGETS

Revenue Account (General)—The consolidated budgetary position of States, excluding Jammu & Kashmir, is shown as follows :—

(*in crores of rupees*)

	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60 (R.E.)	1960-61 (B.E.)
Revenue	.. 714.2	816.6	888.1	944.6
Expenditure.	.. 684.4	768.3	864.6	938.9
Surplus (+) or *Deficit* (—)	.. +29.8	+48.3	+23.5	+5.7

Budget Estimates 1960-61 (*Capital Account*)—The budget estimates for 1960-61 place both revenue and expenditure higher than in 1959-60 (R.E.) by Rs. 56 crores and Rs. 74 crores. Taking into account the net effect of tax proposals, the surplus would be higher by about Rs. 1 crore. On the revenue side, the increase is entirely under non-tax revenue (including grants from the Central Government) which is estimated to increase substantially by Rs. 56 crores to Rs. 381 crores. Tax revenue shows no net change at Rs. 554 crores. The States' share of income tax is lower by Rs. 19 crores at Rs. 60 crores. On the basis of existing taxation seven States, namely Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Jammu & Kashmir, Mysore and Punjab would show surpluses. Only four States, namely, Jammu & Kashmir, Orissa, Rajasthan and Kerala have proposed additional tax measures. On the other hand three states, Andhra Pradesh, Punjab and Madras have proposed tax concessions.

Budget Estimates 1960-61 (Capital Account)—With the receipts estimated higher by Rs. 60 crores at Rs. 569 crores and disbursements higher by Rs. 33 crores at Rs. 582 crores, the capital account for the year 1960-61 shows a smaller deficit of Rs. 13 crores as compared to Rs. 39 crores in 1959-60(R.E.). The rise under the capital receipts is mainly under loans from the Centre, which are placed higher by Rs. 27 crores at Rs. 342 crores.

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DEBT POSITION OF STATES

During 1959-60, the gross debt of the States increased further by Rs. 339 crores at Rs. 2,421 crores compared to a rise of Rs. 302 crores in 1958-59. The rise was mainly on account of loans from Central Government which recorded a rise of Rs. 246 crores to Rs. 1,822 crores. Parmanent debts also increased by Rs. 75 crores (to Rs. 417 crores) as compared to a rise of Rs. 59 crores in 1958-59. Other debts showed an increase of Rs. 9 crores at Rs. 38 crores. Floating debts however, declined by Rs. 1.2 crores (to Rs. 25 crores) as compared to a decline of Rs. 0.4 crores 1958-59.

State Loans—During 1959-60 all the States, except Jammu & Kashmir, entered the markets for loans for an aggregate amount & Rs. 63.50 crores. All the loans were with a maturity period of 12 years and carried a coupon rate of interest of 4 p.c. All the loans were cash loans, excepting the Madras loan 1959, having been offered for conversion into the new loan at par. Net borrowing of States, after allowing cash payments for maturing Madras Loans and 3 p.c. Bhavnagar State Bonds, 1960 amounted to Rs. 68.03 crores.

Balances and ways and means—During 1959-60, average month-end cash balance of State Governments with the Reserve Bank and at Government Treasuries was lower at Rs. 19.91 crores as compared to Rs. 20.66 corces for 1958-59. At the and of 1959-60, States had a *minus* balance of Rs. 14.2 corces as against *plus* balance of Rs. 4.2 crores at the end of 1958-59.

CONSOLIDATED BUDGETARY POSITION OF STATES

(*in crores of rupees*)

	1958-59 (*Accounts*)	1959-60 (*Revised*)	1960-61 (*Budget*)
I. Revenue Account			
Revenue ..	816.6	888.1	944.6
Expenditure ..	768.3	864.6	938.9
Surplus (+) *or Deficit* (—) ..	+48.3	+23.5	+5.7
II. Capital Account			
Receipts ..	391.7	509.7	569.5
Disbursements ..	434.9	549.1	582.3
Surplus (+) *or Deficit* (—) ..	—43.2	—39.4	—12.8
III. Miscellaneous (net) ..	—1.6	+1.7	+1.1
IV. Increase (+) **or Decrease** (—) **in cash balances** ..	+3.5	—14.2	—6.0
Opening Balance ..	14.5	18.0	3.8
Closing Balance ..	18.0	3.8	—2.2

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DEBT POSITION OF STATES

I. Public Debt

	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60 (R.E.)
(a) Permanent debt	273,95	283,43	342,28	416,88
(b) Floating debt	19,88	26,62	26,21	25,01
(c) Loans from Central Govt.	1,094,91	1,354,95	1,575,89	1,822,30
(d) Other debt	2,20	9,23	28,32	37,73
II. Unfunded debt	94,09	105,43	109,61	119,11
III. Gross Total Debt	1,485,03	1,779,65	2,082,29	2,421,05

BUDGETARY POSITION OF STATE GOVERNMENTS

(*in crores of rupees*)

	Total tax revenue	*Non-tax revenue*	*Total revenue*	*Total expenditure*	*Surplus or deficit*
1958-59 (Accounts)	537,06	279,54	816,60	768,29	48,31
1959-60 (Revised)	553,95	334,17	888,12	864,65	+23,47
1960-61 (Budget)	554,06	390,54	944,60	938,92	+ 5,68

SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH & CULTURE IN INDIA

SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH IN INDIA—India has a long tradition of scientific research. Old Sanskrit texts bear witness to the high quality of research in medicine, astronomy and mathematics. But science was in eclipse in the Middle Ages and India began to lose her pre-eminence among the nations of the world. Science received little encouragement under British rule in India. In consequence, the country remained backward in many respects. Official patronage was denied to science but it found devotees among the people. Circumstances, however, compelled the British to reverse their policy. With the advent of World War II, India became the supply base for the Allied forces in the Middle and Far East. So Government of India sought the aid of science to make the most of the resources available within the country. Accordingly, *The Board of Scientific and Industrial Research* was set up in 1940. With the experience gained in the working of the Board, the *Council of Scientific and Industrial Research* came into being in April 1942. With the advent of indepen-

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dence on August, 15 1947, a separate portfolio was created for scientific research under the direct charge of Prime Minister Nehru. This was followed by the creation of the Department of Scientific Research on June 1, 1948, followed by the institution of a Ministry of Natural Resources and Scientific Research in 1951. Consequent on the bifurcation of the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research under the President's Order on 5th April, 1958, the new Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs started functioning on 10th April, 1958.

MINISTRY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS—The Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs consists of the following Divisions—Scientific Research Division, Technical Education Division, Cultural Division, External Relations Division, Cultural Scholarships, and Publications Division and the Administrative Division. In addition, there are the following separate units : gazetteers unit, the Histry of Freedom Movement unit and Copyright Office.

The following are the attached subordinate offices, as also other autonomous bodies under the administrative control of the Ministry—

(1) Department of Archeology, New Delhi, (2) National Gallery of Modern Art, Jaipur House, New Delhi, (3) Delhi Polytechnic, Kashmir Gate, Delhi, (4) Indian War Memorial, Delhi, (5) National Museum, New Delhi (6) Department of Anthropology, Calcutta (7) National Library, Calcutta (8) Central Reference Library (Belvedere), Calcutta (9) Indian School of Mines and Applied Geology, Dhanbad (10) Surveyor-General of India, Dehra Dun (11) Zoological Survey of India, Calcutta (12) Botanical Survey of India, Calcutta (13) National Atlas Organisation, Calcutta (14) Central Board of Geophysics, 5 Middleton St., Calcutta (15) Eastern Regional Office, Ministry of S. R. & C. A. Calcutta (16) Western Regional Office, Ministry of S. R. & C. A., Bombay (17) Southern Regional Office, Ministry of S. R. & C. A. Madras (18) Northern Regional Office, Ministry of S. R. & C. A. Kanpur (19) Council of Scientific & Industrial Research, New Delhi (20) National Research Development Corporation, New Delhi (21) Sangeet Natak Akademi, New Delhi (22) School of Town and Country Planning, New Delhi (23) Lalit Kala Akademi, New Delhi (24) Sahitya Akademi, New Delhi (25) Indian Institute of Techonology, Kharagpur (26) Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay (27) Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (28) Indian Council of Cultural Relations, Pataudi House, New Delhi (29) Indian Museum, Calcutta (30) Victoria Memorial Hall, Calcutta. (31) Indian Institute of Technology, Madras (32) Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA'S SCIENTIFIC POLICY—The Government of India announced its scientific policy in the following terms—(1) To foster, promote and sustain, by all appropriate means, the cultivation of science and scientific research in all its aspects—pure, applied and educational. (2) To ensure an adequate supply, within the country, of research-scientists of the highest quality, and to recognise their work as an important component of the strength of

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the nation. (3) To encourage and initiate with all possible speed programmes for the training of scientific and technical personnel, on a scale adequate to fulfil the country's needs in science and education, agriculture and industry, and defence. (4) To ensure that creative talent of men and women is encouraged and find full scope in scientific activity. (5) To encourage individual initiative for the acquisition and disseminaton of knowledge, and for the dscovery of new knowledge in an atmosphere of academic freedom. (6) And, in general, to secure for the people of the country all the benefits that can accrue from the acquisition and application of scientific knowledge.

DISSEMINATION OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL INFORMATION—For the benefit of the general public with a view to creating science consciousness, the following methods are being adopted by the Government—

(1) Non-technical notes on the scientific work now being carried out in India are prepared monthly and sent to all newspapers and the Press Information Bureau of the Government of India.

(2) Non-technical notes about research carried out by the scientific and industrial research organisations in the U. K. and other countries of Europe are reported by the Indian Scientific Liaison Office, London, in weekly science newsletters.

(3) In Sunday issues of newspapers & weeklies and monthlies, scientific topies are discussed in non-technical language. Background material for such publications are supplied by scientific societies and research institutions.

(4) Various scientific societies in India publish journals devoted to advances in scientific research.

(5) The Zoological Survey of India issues three publications of a more or less regular nature.

(6) The C.S.I.R. continues to disseminate scientific and technical information by issue of press releases on scientific work done at the National Laboratories and results achieved. It prepares non-technical notes on processes developed at National Laboratories. It publishes *Wealth of India*, a dictionary of raw materials and industrial products of India.

(7) Publication of following periodicals—

(a) Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research (monthly).

(b) Council of Scientific and Industrial Research News.

(c) *Vignan Pragati*—a monthly journal in Hindi devoted to small-scale and cottage industries.

(e) Various bulletins and monographs.

(f) Research & Industry (monthly).

(8) Maintenance of Supply and Information Division and the National Laboratories for suplying information on scientific subjects to those who are those interested.

Council of Scientific and Industrial Research—In 1940 the Government of India established a Board of Scientific Research, which was afterwards converted into the *Council of Scientific and Industrial Research.* It is an autonomous body. Scientific Research in India under the Government auspices is now carried mainly through the

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Council of Scientific and Industrial Research and the various National Laboratories or industries set up under its control.

Its functions are—(*a*) promotion, guidance and co-operation of scientific and industrial research in India (*b*) assisting establishment or development of special institutions or departments of existing institutions for scientific study affecting particular industries and trades (*c*) establishment and award of research studentships and fellowships (*d*) establishment, maintenance and management of laboratories, workshops, institutes to further scientific and industrial research for the use of Indian industries (*e*) collection and spread of information in regard not only to research but to industrial matters generally.

The Council is administered by a governing body with the Prime Minister as its President and the Minister for Scientific Research as Vice-President. Non-officials representing science, business and industry as well as the representatives of the Ministry of Finance, are included in the Governing Body. The Governing Body is advised by a Board of Scientific and Industrial Research consisting of eminent scientists and industrialists. The Government Departments interested in the industrial research are also represented. The Board advises the Government on (a) proposals for the initiation of research concerning specific problems, (b) proposals from scientific institutions, including universities, for the study of problems relating to particular trades and industries and (c) proposals for the study and survey of indigenous resources as an esseitial preliminary to systematic investigations.

The Council is mainly financed by the Union Government. It has also income from royalties and premia on processes leased out, sale of publications, fees and charges levied for consultation, testing, etc. It receives gifts of land, buildings and finances from State Governments and others, and donations from businessmen.

Vijnan Mandirs—The objective of the Vijnan Mandir Scheme is to make the village people familiar with the scientific principles involved in their day-to-day problems of agriculture, crop-protection, village sanitation, etc. Apart from a small laboratory for analytical work, a reading room and a science museum are attached to each Vijnan Mandir. Science clubs, organised by Vijnan Mandir, serve as forums for discussion of simple scientific problems and also arrange periodical talks, lectures and demonstrations. Vijnan Mandirs participate in village fairs and exhibitions. At the end of 1959-60, there were 38 Vijnan Mandirs in the country. All the expenses in setting up and running a Vijnan Mandir are borne by the Government of India.

Scientific Research and Surveys—The development of research institutes, laboratories and scientific societies are the main functions institutes laboratories and scientific societies are the main functions of the Ministry, grants-in-aid and supply of literature and information.

Department of Archeology—The main activities of the Department of Archeology are conservation of ancient monuments, explorations and excavations, examination of epigraphical records,

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acquisition and preservation of cultural collections in various museums, dissemination of information in Indian culture through an extensive programme of publications.

Copyright Office—This office now functions as a part of the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs. The Copyright Act 14 of 1957 was brought into force on 21st January, 1958. With effect from the same date, the *Universal Copyright Convention* came into force in the case of India. India acceded to the Brussels text of the Berne Convention and it came into force for India with effect from 21st October, 1958. The copyright office has a *Copyright Board* with a Chairman and two members to settle copyright disputes.

Gazetteers Unit—The Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs has a Gazetteers Unit to bring out Indian Gazetteers. There is an elaborate plan to bring out District Gazetteers. It has an Advisory Board.

Scientific Liaison Office in London was set up in 1948 and is responsible for facilitating the movement of Indian scientists within the Commonwealth and for providing adequate facilities for them and their work. It is also responsible for keeping abreast of the latest scientific and technical development and making all information available to India as well as for facilitating exchange on scientific information and experimental material, as also for attending scientific and technical conferences in the U.K. and Europe.

National Atlas Organisation—was set up to compile the National Atlas of India. The Organisation has its headquarters at Calcutta where the Director's Office and Research *cum* Drawing Section are located at 1, Lower Circular Road. The Drawing Office of the National Atlas Organisation is housed at 113, Rajpur Road, Dehra Dun. All the maps of National Atlas Organisation are original in scope and content.

National Research Development Corporation of India—The main function of the Corporation is to stimulate development of patents and inventions arising out of the researches, conducted in research institutions financed out of the public funds and where feasible, in the public interest, of patented inventions made by individuals also. Development is secured by arranging large-scale trials in co-operation with industry, financing pilot plant investigation in laboratories, or licensing out-patents and inventions to the industrialists for large-scale production.

Indian National Scientific Documentation Centre—had been set up as a result of an agreement between the Government of India and UNESCO in 1951. This is located at the National Physical Laboratory, New Delhi. The centre provides documentation services to national laboratories, scientific institutions, universities and industrial concerns. The INSDOC is a national repository for reports of scientific work carried out in the country, whether published or unpublished.

Museums and Art Collections—There are some important museums in India which are under this Ministry. The Government of India had set up in 1956 the *Central Advisory Board of Museums* to advise the Government on matters relating to the organisation

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and development of museums in the country and to promote closer contact between various museums. *National Museum* at New Delhi is responsible for the exhibition and preservation of art objects and antiquities of national importances. There is an *Art Purchase Committee* for the National Museum at Delhi. There is an *Indian War Memorial Museum at Red Fort, Delhi* which is responsible for the preservation and maintenance of Indian War Memorial exhibts kept therein. The *Indian Museum* at Calcutta is the premier museum of the country. *The Victoria Memorial Hall* in Calcutta is also an historical and art museum. *Salar Jung Museum and Library*, Hyderabad, one of the important institutions of its kind in India, has been handed over to the Government of India. *National Gallery of Modern Art* has been started in Delhi for the preservation of famous art collections of India.

Botanical Survey of India, Calcutta—It functions to explore the plant resoures of the country by systematic surveys. It collabrates with different universities in India and research centres on problems relating to flora in India. Systematic surveys of the floras of the country in under-explored and unexplored areas are undertaken by this organisation. It also undertakes to reprint flora and other publications, including the records of Botanical Survey of India. The Botanical Survey of India has now under it the following organisations—(1) Office of the Chief Botanist, Calcutta (2) Central National Herbarium at the Botanic Garden, Calcutta (3) Industrial Section of the Indian Museum, Calcutta (4) Central Botanical Laboratory, Allahabad (5) Four Regional Circles, namely, Eastern, Weastern, Northern and Southern Circles with headquarters at Shillong, Poona, Dehra Dun and Coimbatore.

Zoological Survey of India, Calcutta—was started in 1916. It conducts research in systematic Zoology, animal ecology, Zoography and famistic surveys. Special researches on locusts termites and high altitude insects are carried out. The preparation of a national zoogeographical atlas of India has been undertaken. Training facilities are provided to research scholars. There is an *Indian Board for Wild Life*.

Survey of India—The primary object of the Survey of India is to carry out topographical surveys throughout the country and to prepare up-to-date maps to cover the whole country recording therein physical and other charactoristic features and administrative sub-divisions. It has its own printing presses at Dehra Dun and Calcutta where maps, both for civil administration and for defence services, are prepared. Officers of the Department are trained at the Survey Training School at Dehra Dun. The work of the Survey of India is carried on by four Circles—Northern, Western, Eastern and Southern. In addition to this, it has *Geodetic and Research Branch* which carries at high precision and secondary levelling, magnetic observations, tidal work, latitude and longitude computations in the International Geophysical Year work and gravity work. *The Air Survey and Training Directorate* carries on departmental survey, Delhi development survey and surveys for flood control schemes.

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Anthropology in India—India is one of the earliest countries to start anthropological survey which it did in the year 1905 during the time of Lord Curzon. But the work was prematurely closed down. A Department of Anthropology was started in Calcutta University in 1921. In 1945, a necleus of the Anthropological Department was established by the Government of India. This Department works through these eight research sections (1) social anthropology (2) social psychology (3) ethnography (4) linguistics (5) human biology (with an X-ray sub-section) (6) comparative morphology (with an anatomy and vertibrate zoology sub-section) (7) somatology and (8) bio-chemistry.

This Department has set up regional research stations situated at Shillong, Nagpur and Port Blair.

The Government of India have set up the Board of Anthropology to establish closer contacts with the universities and other Government Departments.

Central Board of Geophysics—is a subordinate organisation under the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs and is constituted of—(1) a Board of technical members to advise the Government and make recommendations whenever needed on matters relating to geophysics and (2) a Secretariat or Central Office, the Geophycal Research Wing and Oceanographic Research Wing. The Board is acting as the National Committee in India for geology and geophysics and is maintaining liaison with International Union of Geology and Geophysics.

Geological Survey of India—This department was started in 1851. The function of the Geological Survey of India is to prepare adequate geological maps for the whole country, explore mineral deposits, assess them on a regional scale, tender geological advice to important engineering projects, carry on geophysical prospecting for mineral deposits, and undertake the study of ground-water resources and connected matters. It also trains new recruits and post-graduate university students in geology and conducts courses of lectures at Presidency College, Calcutta and at Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad. It has also following sections—Geo-physical Section, Engineering Geology Section, Ground-water Section and a Ground-water Exploration Section.

Departmental Researches—Several Departments of the Government of India have their own research centres or stations. Some of these are mentioned here—

(1) Eleven research stations under the Central Board of Irrigation and Power. The Central Water, Power and Irrigation Research Centre at Khadakvasla ((near Poona) is the pioneer research hydraulic station in India.

(2) Directorate-General of Civil Aviation has established a Research and Development Directorate.

(3) Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun carries on research on timber.

(4) The Botanical Survey of India maintains a National Herbarium and Botanical Museum in Calcutta.

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(5) All India Radio has a research unit at Delhi for radio researches.

(6) Railway Board has a research centre at Lucknow with sub-stations at Lonavla and Chittaranjan to investigate problems referred to them by railway workshops and Central Standards Office (Railways).

(7) Indian Standards Institution lays down standard specifications for materials and products.

Scientific Research—Government and Private—The Government of India maintain various scientific and research institutions, laboratories and scientific societies throughout the country. Following are the main institutions under the Government control, though there are also many private research institutes.

National Laboratories—The establishment of a chain of National Laboratories ranks as one of the major achievements of India since Independence. These National Laboratories seek to supplement the work of other research institutions of the country. The descriptions of these laboratories are given here—

National Physical Laboratory, New Delhi—Research in problems relating to physics, both fundamental and applied, maintenance of standards. Testing facilities are also available. It was opened on January 21, 1950.

National Chemical Laboratory, Poona—It was opened on Jan. 3, 1950. Its functions are fundamental and applied research, covering the whole field of chemistry.

Natoinal Metallurgical Laboratory, Jamshedpur—was opened on 26th November, 1950. It deals with fundamental and applied metallurgical research.

Central Fuel Research Institute, Jealgora (Bihar)—was opened on 25th August, 1950. The Institute conducts fundamental and applied research on fuels—solid, liquid and gaseous. Physical and chemical surveys of Indian coals are conducted through six coal survey stations under the Institute.

Central Glass and Ceramic Research Institute, Calcutta—was opened on 25th August, 1950. The Institute conducts research on different aspects of glass and ceramics, pottery, porcelain, refractories and enamels; development of processes for glass and ceramic articles ; standardisation of raw materials used in ceramic industry.

Central Road Research Institute, New Delhi—was opened on July 16, 1952. It conducts research on road materials, and road surfaces.

Central Food Technological Research Institute, Mysore City—It was opened on 21st October, 1950. Food processing and conservation of food engineering and all aspects of fruit technology.

Central Drug Research Institute, 'Chattar Manzil,' Lucknow—was opened on February 1, 1951. All aspects of drug research including evaluation and standardization of crude drugs, discovery of substitutes for pharmacopicial drugs and plants, pharmaceutical and synthetic chemicals, etc., etc.

Central Leather Research Institute, Madras—was opened

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on January 16, 1953. Fundamental and applied aspects of leather technology.

Central Electro-Chemical Research Institute, Karaikudi (Madras)—was opened on January 15, 1953. Research on different aspects of electro-chemistry, including electro-metallurgy, electro-deposition and allied problems.

Central Building Research Institute, Roorkee—was opened on April 13, 1953. Engineering and structural aspects of building and human comforts in relation to building.

Central Salt Reserach Institute, Bhavnagar—was opened on the 10th April, 1954. It carries investigation of production of pure salts, reduction in cost of production, economic utilization of by-products of salt manufacture.

Central Electronics Engineering Institute, Pilani, Rajasthan—was opened in Rajasthan in 1954. Design and construction of electronic equipment and components and test equipment.

National Botanical Gardens, Lucknow—It has been established for the collection, introduction and large-scale cultivation of economic and medicinal plants of industrial importance.

Central Mining Researh Station, Dhanbad—Research in methods of mining, safety in mines and mine machinery.

Regional Research Laboratory, Hyderabad—Research in problems specially relating to the industries and raw materials of the area.

Indian Institute of Biochemistry and Experimental Medicine, Calcutta—Research in various aspects of biochemistry as applied to medicine, bacteriology, etc.

Birla Industrial and Technological Museum, Calcutta—A museum to depict scientific and technological advancement.

Regional Research Laboratory, Jammu Tawai (Jammu & Kashmir)—Research in problems specially relating to the industries and raw materials of the area and research specially directed to medicinal plants of the Himalayas.

Central Mechanical Engineering Research Institute, Durgapur, West Bengal—Research in mechanical engineering in all its aspects.

Central Public Health Engineering Research Institute, Nagpur—Research in all aspects of public health engineering and co-ordination of work of all interested agencies in this field in the country.

National Aeronautical Laboratory, Bangalore—Scientific investigations of the problems of flight with a view to their practical application to the design construction and operation of aircraft in India.

Regional Researh Laboratory, Jorhat—Research problems relating to more efficient utilisation and better conservation of important national resources of Assam and other regional needs.

Central Indian Medicinal Plants Organisation, New Delhi—Co-ordination of activities in the development of cultivation and utilisation of medicinal plants on organised basis.

Central Scientific Instruments Organisation, New Delhi—Promotion and development of indigenous manufacture of scientific instruments for teaching, research and industry.

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Engineering Research—With a view to initiating and co-ordinating research on different engineering subjects, *the Board of Engineering Research* was inaugurated in 1950. The Board is assisted by five expert committees—(1) Civil Engineering Committee, (2) Mechanical Engineering Committee, (3) Electrical and Radio Engineering Committee, (4) Hydraulics Committee and (5) Aeronautical Engineering Committee.

Medical Research—Medical research is conducted chiefly under the auspices of the *Indian Council of Medical Research* founded in 1912 New Delhi. This Council also grants research fellowships. There is a Scientific Advisory Board which deals with technical questions, etc. *Indian Research Fund Association* was brought into being with the object of sponsoring research in subjects relating to medicine and public health. Among the specialised institutes catering to research and public health, the following may be mentioned—

(1) Central Research Institute, Kasauli; (2) School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta; (3) Haffkine Institute, Bombay; (4) King Institute of Preventive medicine Guindy, Madras; (5) All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Madras; (6) Malaria Institute, Delhi; (7) Nutrition Research Institute, Coonoor; (8) Pasteur Institutes at Kasauli, Shillong and Coonoor; (9) Central Leprosy Research Institute, Madras; (10) Indian Cancer Research Centre, Bombay; (11) Drug Research Institute, Srinagar; (12) Central Drug Research Laboratory, Calcutta; (13) Vallabhbhai Patel Chest Institute, Delhi; (14) Lady Willingdon Leprosy Sanatorium at Chingleput.

Agricultural Research—It had its beginning in 1929 with the starting of *Indian Council of Agricultural Research*. The primary function of the Council is to promote, guide and co-ordinate agricultural and animal husbandry education and research and its application through institutions belonging to Central and State Governments, the universities and other institutions.

The following are the main agricultural Institutes of India—(1) Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun; (2) Indian Agricultural Research Institute, Delhi; (3) Indian Veterinary Research Institute, Mukteswar and Izatnagar; (4) Indian Dairy Research Institute, Bangalore; (5) Sugar Research Institute, Coimbatore; (6) Central Rice Research Station, Cuttack; (7) Cotton Technological Research Laboratory, Matunga, Bombay and its sub-station at Indore; (8) Central Jute Technological Research Laboratory, Calcutta; (9) Jute Agricultural Research Institute, Hooghly; (10) Indian Lac Research Institute, Ranchi; (11) Central Tobacco Research Institute, Rajamundry; (12) Bidi Tobacco Research Station, Anand; (13) Central Inland Fisheries Research Station, Barrackpur; (14) Central Marine Research Station, Fisheries, Mandapam; (15) Deep-Sea Fishing Research Station, Bombay; (16) Central Coconut Research Station, Kayamkulain, Travancore; (17) Central Potato Research Institute, Patna; (18) Central Vegetable Breeding Station, Kulu, Punjab; (19) Fruit Research Institute, Sabour, Bhagalpur; (20) Sugarcane Research Station, Poona; (21) Sugarcane Research Station, Shaajehanpur; (20) National Diary Research Institute, Karnal.

Statistical Research—An important agency of the scientific

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research is the Indian Statistical Research Institute of Calcutta. The Institute has developed into a big research centre with roughly 800 scientific and auxiliary workers. It maintains small branches and agencies in other cities and runs international courses in statistics for undergraduate and graduate students from south-east Asian countries.

Central Statistical Organisation of the Government of India has carried out valuable national sample surveys of manufacturing industries, land holdings, crops, employment & unemployment and also research in national income statistics.

Nuclear Research and Atomic Energy—Atomic Energy Commission is responsible for taking all actions concerning atomic energy in India. The scientific and technical work of the Commission is carried on by the Atomic Minerals Division and the Atomic Energy Establishment. So far as industrial work is concerned, it is carried on by *Indian Rare Earths (Private) Ltd.*, at Alwaye (Kerala) and also by Travancore Minerals (Private) Ltd., set up in October 1956 for mineral sand industry of South India. The Atomic Energy Establishment is located at Trombay in Bombay. It is the centre of research and development work in the sphere of atomic energy. The Trombay Establishment consists of four main groups covering physics, chemistry, engineering, biology and medicine. The Trombay establishment has India's first reactor *Apsara*. A zero energy reactor known as *Zerlina* for lattice investigations has been constructed. Another reactor which is a joint Indo-Canadian project under the Colombo Plan has gone critical in 1960. The Atomic Energy Establishment Trombay, (Bombay) is India's centre of research and development in the field of atomic energy.

Institutes, Laboratories and Universities are also engaged in the advancement of nuclear energy in India. They are provided by the Atomic Energy Commission with grants-in-aid. In this connection following institutions can be mentioned—*Tata Institute of Foundamental Research, Bombay, Physical Research Laboratory, Ahmedabad, Bose Institute, Calcutta, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, Saha Institute of Nuclear Physics, Calcutta.*

Information and Publication—A Bureau of Information for Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs has been formed both to answer a large number of queries from the public on the exact line of demarcation in activity between the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs on the one hand and the Ministry of Education on the other, and also to build up a body of reference material in the special subjects in which the Ministry of S. R. & C. A. was interested. Accordingly a Bureau Library has been built up consisting of calendars, reference books, etc. Special stress has been laid on the subjects of Scientific Research. Along with the Bureau, it has been decided to create a Publications Unit to deal with departmental publications.

Specialised Institutions—*Administrative Staff College* was started at Hyderabad in 1957 to bring together young administrators from all walks of national life to study the principles and techniques

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of organisation, administration and leadership. Four *Regional Schools of Printing*, jointly sponsored by the Central and State Governments at Madras, Bombay, Calcutta and Allahabad have been started. *Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore* started in 1909, is an another higher scientific institute for post-graduate training. The Government of India have declared in 1958 that this Institute is an institution of higher learning and shall be deemed to be a University for the purpose of the University Grants Commission. Another important technical institution under Government management is the *Delhi Polytechnic*. Mining engineering, applied geology and petroleum techniques are taught in the *Indian School of Mines and Applied Geology, Dhanbad.*

Scholarships—To encourage and promote scientific research and technical education, to meet the shortage of trained personnel in the country, to improve the standards of teaching and research and to encourage young persons of outstanding promise in various cultural fields, the Government of India have introduced scholarships on a large scale. The following scholarships are awarded by the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs—

(1) Central Over-seas Scholarship Scheme.
(2) Union Territories Over-seas Scholarship Scheme.
(3) Twenty-Fifth paid Over-seas Scholarship Scheme.
(4) Indo-German Industrial Co-operation Scheme.
(5) Fellowships, scholarships offered by foreign Governments and organisations, such as Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Democratic Republic of Germany, Hungary, Netherlands, Rumania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Arab Republic, U.S.S.R., Yugoslavia, British Scholarships, Colombo Plan Schemes, German Exchange Service Scholarships.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION—The Government of India have adopted a constructive and purposeful policy to develop technical education facilities on the widest scale possible. An *All-India Council for Technical Education* has been set up by the Government of India in 1954 to advise it on all matters relating to the co-ordination and development of technical education in the country above the high school stage. The Council functions through certain Standing Committees and various *ad hoc* Committees appointed by it from time to time. The Council, however, has no executive or administrative or controlling powers. For purposes of laying down of standards in technical education, the Council has appointed seven Boards of Studies in different fields, namely, engineering and metallurgy, chemical engineering and chemical technology, textile technology, architecture and regional planning, applied art, commerce and management.

The *Indian Institute of Technology at Kharagpur* established in 1951, is the first of the four higher technological institutions as recommended by the Sarkar Committee. The Kharagpur Institute was incorporated by an Act of the Parliament in April, 1957 as "an Institution of National Importance." The second higher technological institute was started at Bombay known as *Indian Institute of Technology* in 1958. The third higher technological institute is the *Indian Institute of Technology* at Madras

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started in July, 1959. The fourth higher technological institute is the *Indian Institute of Technology*, Kanpur which was started in 1960. *The College of Engineering and Technology* was also started at Delhi in 1960. *The School of Town and Country Planning*, Delhi, established in July 1955, conducts courses in all aspects of rural, urban and regional planning.

INDIA'S ASSOCIATION WITH INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC UNIONS—India continues to be a member of the International Council of Scientific Unions and the following International Scientific Unions through this Ministry.—(1) International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics (2) International Astronomical Union (3) (3) International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (4) International Union of Pure and Applied Physics (5) International Union of Biological Sciences (6) International Union of Crystallography (7) International Union of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics (8) International Union (10) International Commission of Table of Constants (11) International Bureau of Weights and Measures. (11) International Scientific Radio Union (12) International Union of History of Sciences.

RESEARCH ORGANISATIONS—India has a number of older scientific and research organisations originally established in connection with universities or by private donations, but now considerably enlarged and financed by grants from the Central or State Governments. The earliest research society established in India is the *Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal* in the year 1748. There are many learned scientific societies scattered throughout the country. *Indian Science Congress Association*, started in 1914, provides a common forum for the scientists of the country. *National Institute of Sciences* established in 1935 has been recognised by the Government as the premier scientific organisation engaged for co-ordination between scientific academies, societies, institutions and Government scientific departments and services. Other learned societies in various parts of India are—(1) Agricultural and Horticultural Society of India, Calcutta, (2) National Institute of Sciences of India, Delhi, (3) Indian Research Fund Association, (4) National Academy of Sciences, Allahabad, (5) Indian Academy of Sciences, Bangalore, (6) Mining and Geological Survey of India, (7) Mining and Metallurgical Society, (8) Indian Society of Social Sciences, (9) Entomological Society of India, (10) Horticultural Society of India, (11) Indian Dairy Association, Bangalore, (12) Central Research Institute, Kasauli, (13) Central Road Research Institute, Okhla, New Delhi, (14) Central Water and Power Station, Poona, (15) Drug Research Laboratory, Jammu, (16) Hydraulic Research Laboratories, Poona, (17) Indian Central Cotton Committee Technological Laboratory, Bombay, (18) Indian Tea Association Research Institute, Tookla, Assam, (19) Ionospheric Research Station, Haringhatta, Calcutta. (20) Oil Technological Institute, Anantapur, Madras, (21) Tata Institute of Fundamental Research Institute, Bombay, (22) Engineers' Association of India, Calcutta, (23) Bose Institute, Calcutta carries on research in physics, chemistry, plant physiology, plant breeding, biology and

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zoology, (24) Birbal Sahani Institute of Palio-botany, Lucknow carries on research in the fossil flora of India, (25) Indian Association For Cultivation Of Science, Calcutta conducts post-graduate research in fundamental and applied aspects of physics & chemistry.

MUSEUMS IN INDIA

Indian Museum, Calcutta.
Govt. Industrial Museum, Cal.
Victoria Memorial Hall, Calcutta.
Bangiya Sahitya Parisad, Cal.
Commercial Museum, Calcutta.
Ashutosh Museum, (Cal. Univ.).
Natural Hist. Museum, Darjeeling.
B. R. Sen Museum, Malda.
Patna Museum, Patna.
State Museum, Lucknow.
Sarnath Museum, Sarnath.
Archaeological Museum, Mathura.
Central Museum, Jaipur.
City Palace, Jaipur.
State Museum, Udaipur.
Victoria Hall Museum, Udaipur.
Rajasthan Museum, Ajmer.
Prince of Wales Museum, Bom.
Central Museum, Nagpur.
Fort St. George Museum, Madras.
Govt. Museum, Bangalore.
Gwalior Museum, Gwalior.
Ganga Golden Jubilee Museum, Bikaner.
Indore Museum, Indore.
Museum of Antiquities Padmanabhapuram (Kerala).
Venkata Vaidya Sadhan Museum, Rewa.
Bharat Itihasa Samsodhaka Mandal, Poona.
Vaisali Museum, Vaisali (Bihar).
Saranath Museum, Saranath.
Alwar Museum, Rajasthan.
Amber Museum, Rajasthan.
Amreli Museum, Bombay.
Bharatpur Museum, Bharatpur, (Rajasthan).
Bhopal Museum, Bhopal.
Bhuj Museum, Cutch.
Gurukul Museum, Kangra, (Punjab).
Historical Museum, Satara.
Hyderabad Museum, (Andhra).
War Memorial Museum, Delhi.
Indonesian Gallary & Museum of Eastern Arts & Crafts, Trivandrum.
Janapada Sabha Museum, Raipur.
Jhalawar Museum, Jhalrapatan (Rajasthan).
Junagadh Museum, Junagadh.
Kondapur Site Museum, Kondapur, (Hyderabad).
Kota Museum, Kota (Rajasthan).
Tipu Sultan Museum, Srirangapattam.
Mahant Ghasidas Museum, Raipur.
Maskis Site Museum, Hyderabad.
Municipal Museum, Allahabad.
Patiala Museum, Patiala.
Sanohi Museum, Bhopal.
Sardar Museum, Jodhpur.
Jardine Museum, Khajuraho.
St. Xavier's College Museum, Bombay.
Puddukottai Museum, Pudukottai, (Madras).
State Museum, Trichur, Cochin.
Jamnagar Museum, Jamnagar.
Victoria Jubilee Museum, Bezwada.
Archæological Museum, Bijapur.
Archaeological Museum, Trichur.
Taj Museum, Agra.
State Museum, Bhuvaneswar.
Museum of Archæology, Sanchi.
Central Asian Antiquities Museum, New Delhi.
Fort Museum, Delhi.
National Museum, New Delhi.
Nalanda Museum, Nalanda.
Dhar Museum, Dhar, (M. B.).
Kolhapur Museum, Kolhapur.
Govt. Museum, Trivandrum.
Govt. Museum, Madras.
Govet. Industrial Museum, Calcutta.
Baripada Museum, Baripada, (Orissa).

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Museums in India (*concld.*)

Gauhati Museum, Gauhati.
Bhuri Singh Museum, Chamba (U.P.).
Faizabad Museum, Faizabad.
Bharat Kala Bhawan, Banaras.
Sir Pratap Singh Museum, Bhavnagar.
Salar Jang Museum, Hyderabad.
Raisen Museum, Bhopal.
Sibpur Botanical Garden Harbariun, Sibpur (Howrah).
Sri Chitralayam (Kerala).
S. M. Museum, (Terupati).
Victoria & Albert Museum Bombay.

EDUCATION IN INDIA

THE PRESENT SET-UP—Education is a State subject. The Union Government concerns itself with the coordination of facilities and determination of standards in respect of higher education through the University Grants Commission and research and scientific and technical education. The coordination in regard to elementary and secondary education is through All-India Councils. The Union Government is also responsible for the running of four universities, Aligarh, Banaras, Delhi and Visva Bharati and such other institutions of national importance as Parliament may by law declare. They also administer the award of scholarship and co-operate with international organisations like UNESCO.

From February 10, 1958, the *Ministry of Education* and and the *Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs* has become separate bodies. Both these Ministries are under the charge of two Ministers of State.

The Ministry of Education—deals with the following subjects—General Educational Development ; University, Secondary, Elementary, Pre-Primary and Basic Education, Social Education, Adult Education, Women's Education, Religious Education, Rural Higher Education. Education in Union Territories, Gandhian Philosophy, Social Education, Adult Education, Social Welfare, Physical Education, Sports and Games, National Discipline Scheme, Holiday Homes, General Cultural Scholarship Schemes, Education and Welfare of Overseas Indian Students, National Archives, Youth Welfare Activities, Audo-Visual Education, Central Universities, Central Bureau of Text-book Research ; Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance ; Public Schools ; Central Educational Libraty ; Delhi Public Library ; National Book Trust ; Various schemes of scholarship ; Development of Hindi ; Information and Statistics ; National Institute of Basic Education ; All India Council of Secondary Education ; Central Institute of Education ; Training Centre for the Adult Blind ; Central Braille Press and Universtiy Grants Commission, Children's Literature, Women's Education,

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Text-Book Research, Education of the Handicapped, Children Welfare and Juvenile Delinquency, Scholarships for Overseas studies, etc.

To cope with the work, the Ministry of Education has been organised into the following eight Divisions—Elementary & Basic Education Division, Secondary Education Division, Hindi Division, Social Education and Social Welfare Division, Physical Education and Recreation Division, Scholarships Division and Higher Education and UNESCO Division.

EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN INDIA—At the lowest level of our educational system are *Nursery Schools* for children of age-group 3—6. Then come the *Primary or Elementary Schools* for children of age-group 6—11. These schools are called *Junior Basic Schools*. The *Secondary Schools*, which follow next, are of two categories—the *Middle* or the *Senior Basic Schools* and the *High Schools*. These cater to the needs of children of roughly the age-groups 11—14 and 11—16 respectively. In some States, the Secondary Schools are called Higher Secondary Schools and cater to the needs of children of roughly the age-group 11—17. In general education next to High Schools are the *Intermediate Colleges* or the Intermediate Classes of Degree Colleges. These generally cover the age-group 16—18. After passing the Intermediate, the students enter Degree Colleges or the Universities and the age-group covered here is roughly 18—24.

So the present educational structure in India may be summarised as follows—(1) Primary schools which impart instruction through regional language or the mother tongue of the child; (2) Middle schools which impart instruction through regional language and English or only through the regional language ; (3) Secondary Schools which provide instruction up to the Matriculation Standard ; (4) Intermediate colleges affiliated to boards or universities ; (5) Degree colleges affiliated to the universities and (6) Post-Graduate and Research institutions.

In professional education, the Polytechnics or Vocational and Technical Schools are of a mixed type, in the sense that the diplomas and certificates awarded together are of both an undergraduate and higher standard. The professional and technical colleges are at par in standard with other colleges and award University degrees.

Basic Education—The Government of India and State Governments have accepted Basic Education as the national pattern of elementary education for children. The scheme of basic education was thoroughly considered by the *Sargeant Committee* before the attainment of independence, which envisaged *inter alia* the provision of universal, free and compulsory elementary education throughout the country within a period of 40 years. The Indian Constitution also incorporated a Directive that State should endeavour to provide free and compulsory elementary education for all children up to the age of 14 years within 10 years of the commencement of the Constitution. The concept and system of Basic Education was clearly defined in the *Zakir Husain Committee* and further elucidated by the Central Advisory Board of Education. The basic system set out an activity curriculum in which learning is correlated with the physical

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and social environment of the children and also with productive activities like spinning and weaving, gardening, carpentry, leather work, book work, and domestic crafts, including cooking, sewing, house management, etc. The Government of India set up an *All India Council for Elementary Education* on 1st July, 1957 to advise the Central and State Governments on all matters relating to elementary education and to prepare programmes for the early implementation of compulsory and free elementary education. All the elementary schools are being converted into Basic schools.

There is a *National Institute of Basic Education* at Delhi, set up in February 1956, the main functions of which are—(1) to conduct research in basic education and crafts (2) to impart advanced training in basic education to inspectors, administrators and other higher personnel in educational field. There is also a *Standing Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Basic Education* (1) to advise in the planning of the policy for the development of basic education (2) to examine the work done in this field by the Centre and the State Governments and to suggest ways and means for promoting further development (3) to examine the problem of basic education with special reference to (*a*) the development of correlated techniques of teaching (*b*) the productive aspect (*c*) preparation of suitable materials and aids, etc.

The encouragement for the production of suitable literature for children is one of the programmes of the Basic Education. For this the following schemes have been undertaken—(1) *Prize contest for books for children* (2) *Literacy workshops* for training authors in the technique for preparing literature. (3) *Model books*—the scheme envisages the production of a limited number of model books in order to improve the general standard of children's literature in all languages. (4) *Annotated Bibliography of Children's Literature*—the preparation of Hindi literature has been undertaken. (5) *Children's Book Trust* has been established for the production of children's literature.

Production of literature for advancement of Basic Education, such as, guide books for basic school teachers, supplementary reading material for children of basic school, source books for basic school teachers.

Secondary Education—Secondary Education Commission was appointed in 1952 which in its report in 1953 recommended a reorientation and reorganisation of Secondary Education for making this education self-contained and complete upto the age of 17. The recommendations of the Commission were—

(1) Enriching the content of secondary education by adding one more class to the high school and making it a higher secondary school of 11 years' duration and providing diversified system of education in which students could offer, in addition to a common core of studies, a group of three subjects from any one of seven, namely, Humanities, Science, Technology, Commerce Agriculture, Fine Arts and Home Science.

(2) Provision of facilities for improvements in teaching science,

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libraries, introduction of crafts in middle schools, training of teachers and career masters, etc.

(3) Establishment of All India Council of Secondary Education.

(4) The compulsory study of languages at the secondary stage.

There is an *All-India Council for Secondary Education. A Central Inistitute of English* was set up at Hyderabad in 1958 to improve the standards of teaching English, provide for the study of English language and literature, organise research in the teaching of the subject, and to train teachers. There is a *Central Bureau of Text Book Research.*

All-India Council for Secondary Education has been established to advise the Central and State Governments. Its main functions are to review from time to time the progress of Secondary Education throughout the country and to serve as an expert body to advise the State and the Central Government on the improvement and expansion of Secondary Education in all its phases. This Council is now an advisory body. Its functions are (1) to review the progress of secondary education and serve as an expert body to advise the Governments about improvement and expansion of Secondary Education (2) to examine and apprise proposals and make suitable recommendations (3) To initiate proposals for improvement of Secondary Education in the light of the experience (4) To examine and recommend proposals for research in problems of Secondary Education in all its aspects.

Higher and University Education—The University education in India is imparted through (*a*) arts and science colleges (*b*) professional colleges (*c*) special educational colleges (*d*) research institutions and (*e*) universities. In States, where there is a Board of Higher Secondary and Intermediate Education, the post-intermediate stage is conducted under the direction and control of universities in respect of courses of study, examination and award of degrees and diplomas. There are three types of universities in India—(1) *Affiliating* universities which merely prescribe courses of study, conduct examinations and award degrees and diplomas but do not undertake the task of teaching. (2) The *affiliating and teaching* universities in addition to carrying out functions of the affiliating type, offer teaching and research facilities (3) *Residential and Teaching Type* of Universities control all colleges under their jurisdiction in all respects and undertake teaching at all levels.

Attempt is being made to remodel the university education in the light of the country's new needs and aspirations. One of the more important decisions taken in this field is the introduction of *Three-year Degree Course.*

All the universities have agreed to introduce the three-year degree course with the exception of Bombay University which has rejected the scheme on academic grounds and the Gorakpur University which is still considering the matter.

In order to discuss university problems and for co-operation among all-universities in India and also for the mutual recognition of degrees and diplomas awarded by the universities in India the *Inter-*

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Universities Board was formed in 1925. This serves as a forum for discussion for all University problems. This is an advisory body.

University Grants Commission was appointed in 1953. It was given an autonomous statutory status by the University Grants Commission Act 3 of 1956. The main functions of the Commission are (1) to enquire into the financial needs of the Universities (2) to allocate and disburse grants to universities out of its funds (3) to advise the Central Government or any State Government on the allocations of any grants to universities for any general or specified purpose out of the Consolidated Fund of India or the Consolidated Fund of the State as the case may be (*d*) advise any authority on the establishment of a new university or on proposals connected with the expansion of the activities of any university.

Girls' and Women's Education—National Council for Women's Education has been set-up in 1960, to advise the Government on the problems of girls' education at various stages and the education of adult women. A special provision for women's education has been made in the Third Plan.

Social Education—The concept of Social Education was embodied in a five-point programme, to promote—(1) literacy, (2) a knowledge of the rules of health and hygiene, (3) training for the improvement of the adults' economic status, (4) a sense of citizenship with an adequate consciousness of rights and duties and (5) healthy forms of recreation suited to the needs of the community and the individual. The States execute the various schemes, while the Centre provides guidance, financial assistance and co-ordination. In this sphere of Social Education, the Ministry of Education is responsible for advising and helping the State programmes on Adult and Social Education. It has also taken up a number of schemes to encourage the production of suitable literature for adults.

Under the Central Schemes, the Government of India set up the following institutions—(1) *National Fundamental Education Centre* was set up in New Delhi in 1956 to serve as a national centre for training the necessary personnel in the field of social education and for carrying research (2) *Institute of Librarianship at the Delhi University* for training district librarianship (3) *Workers' Institute at Indore* for imparting general and citizenship education to workers.

Some of the outstanding agencies of Social Education are as follows—(*a*) *Prize Scheme for best Books for Neo-Literates*—Since 1956 the Government of India have been awarding prizes on best books for neo-literates in all regional languages by holding annual prize competition, (*b*) with a view to developing children's literature in the various Indian languages, the Ministry of Education has awarded prizes to authors of outstanding books for children, (*c*) the Ministry has offered a prize of Rs. 5,000 for the best manuscript on the 'History of India, (*d*) *Literary Workshops* are held for training authors to write for neo-literates, (*e*) the Ministry gives assistance to various State Governments for conducting research in the spoken vocabulary of the people in a limited area, (*f*) *National Book Trust* was established in August 1957 to encouraged the production of good literature and

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to make good books available at moderate prices to libraries, educational mstitutions, and the public generally with a view to encouraging the production of good literature and to make such books available at moderate prices. (*g*) *Children's Book Trust* has been established for the production of children's books (*h*) *model books* are being produced by the Ministry in order to raise the level of book—production in children's literature. (i) *Audio-Visual Aids*—Central Film Library with films and film strips on various educational and cultural subjects has been started.

There is a *National Board for Audio-Visual Education* to formulate the policy for the development of Audio-visual education on an all-India basis. The Union Ministry's plans and programmes are—acquisition, production and popularisation of films, charts, posters, etc. A *National Audio-Visual Education Institute* was started in 1958.

The State Schemes are as follows—Establishment of Central ,District and other libraries, establishment of Janta colleges to train potential villege leaders and appointment of district social organisers.

The Central Schemes are as follows—Institute of Library Science was established in 1958 at Delhi to provide facilities for training of public libraries.

Physical Education and Youth Welfare—*A Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation* has been estab-lished in 1950, to advise the Government on the co-ordination of all programmes and activities in the field of physical education and recreation. Another important advisory body organised by the Government is the *All-India Council of Sports*, which advise the Government on matters relating to the development of games and sports in the country. It also functions as a co-operating agency between the National Sports Federations and Organisations which are affiliated to it. The *Lakshmibai College of Physical Education* was started by the Government of India at Gwalior on 17th August, 1957. It is the only institution of its kind in the country and provides training facilities for a three-year degree course in physical education. *Rajkumari Sports Coaching Scheme* was inaugurated in September 1953. This Scheme has established permanent coaching centres, offered coaching assistance to various States centres in almost all sports—outdoor and indoor—and organised coaching of coaches with the help of foreign coaching personnel. In order to help the expansion of Boy Scout movement in India, the Government of India sanctions substantial grants to *Bharat Scouts and Guides*. For *Youth Welfare Scheme*, the Union Government renders financial assistance to schools and colleges for organising educational tours in small batches of students. *Inter-university youth festivals* are being held every year since 1954, where students of all universities participate in various festivals. *Youth Hostels* are being established all over India under the Youth Hostels Association of India to provide cheap food and accommodation to students undertaking educational tours or going out for trekking or hiking. Non-student youth clubs and centres are being set up. *Youth leadership training camps* are being held where short-term

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training is imparted to selected teachers in the promotion of extra-curricular activities. *National Institute of Sports* has been training at Patiala which will provide adequate facilities for training of coaches of the highest calibre of various games and sports.

National Discipline Scheme—was introduced in July, 1954 to bring up younger generation under proper code of discipline and to instil in them ideals of good citizenship and comradeship. It is meant for the physical and general social training of displaced children. The scheme has been extended to large number of schools in several States.

SCHOLARSHIPS—The main functions of the Ministry of Education regarding scholarships are—(*a*) to administer the various scholarship-schemes (*b*) to look after the welfare of Indian students abroad (*c*) to secure admissions in Indian universities/institutions for foreign (private) and African students, award freeships by Indian universities and State Governments (*d*) to look after the welfare of foreign students in India (*e*) to attend to enquiries relating to the scholarship-schemes and facilities for practical training abroad and (*f*) to provide partial financial assistance in the form of loans to those schemes which are eligible for such aid. At present the following Scholarship-Schemes are being administered by the Education Ministry—(*A*) *For Studies Abroad*—(*a*) Government of India Scholarship-Schemes (*b*) Colombo Plan and Point Four Programme Scholarships and Fellowships (*c*) United Nations and UNESCO Scholarships and Fellowships (*d*) Foreign Governments Scholarships/Fellowships (*e*) Foreign Institutions/Organisations Scholarships/Fellowships for Study/Practical Training (*B*) *For Studies in India*—(*a*) For Foreign Nationals (*b*) For Indian Nationals.

RURAL HIGHER EDUCATION—*National Council for Higher Education in Rural areas* has been set up to advise the Government on all matters relating to the development of rural higher education. Its main functions are (1) to serve as an expert body to advise the Central and State Governments about the improvement and expansion of rural education in all its aspects (2) to advise the rural education institutions and act as a coordinating agency amongst them (3) to initiate schemes for the development and maintenance of standards of high school education in rural areas and to encourage research in problems to rural education in all its aspects.

The Council selected 10 institutions for development into rural institutes, such as at Srinekatan, Gandhigram (Madurai), Jamianagar (New Delhi), Udaipur, Sundarnagar, Birauli (Bihar), Bichpuri (Agra), Sanosara (Bombay), Coimbatore, Amaravati and Gargoti (Bombay). These institutes have diploma course, certificate course, etc. Recognition of the diploma course in rural sciences as equivalent to a degree of a university for purposes of employment has been secured.

SOCIAL WELFARE—*Central Social Welfare Board* was set up in August 1953 as an autonomous body. The main objectives of the Board are (1) to survey the needs and evaluate the programmes of

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social welfare organisations (2) to promote the setting-up of social welfare institutions in places where they do not exist (3) to give grants-in-aid to volountary institutions providing welfare services to women, children, delinquents, the handicapped, the aged and the infirm and other needy groups (4) to subsidise hostels for working women and the blind.

Its works are carried on in the following manner—*Model School for blind children*, Dehra Dun, *Training Centre for Adult Blind* with women section, *Model school for orthopaedically handicapped children, Training Centre for adult deaf, Model School for mentally retarded children, etc., etc.*

DEVELOPMENT OF HINDI—The Constitution of India has laid down that Hindi shall be the official language of the Union within a period of 15 years. So a fifteen-year programme for the development and propagation of Hindi has been adopted, divided into the following stages—(1) In the first stage, the major portion of the work of preparing Hindi technical terms to be completed (2) In the Second Stage, instruction in Hindi by opening classes and through other media in non-Hindi speaking areas to be provided (3) In the third stage, Hindi to be introduced as the official language of the Central Government and as a medium of communication between the Centre and the States in addition to English.

Expert Committees have been constituted for evolving technical terminology in Hindi. Standard Key-boards have been evolved for the Hindi typewriter and Hindi teleprinter. A Hindi Commission has been set up to examine the feasibility of adopting Hindi as the official language within the stipulated period. A Hindi Shiksha Samiti has been constituted to aid and advise the Ministry on matters relating to propagation and development of Hindi. Grants have been given for the compilation of standard Hindi dictionary, an English-Hindi dictionary and cheap editions of Hindi classics.

PROMOTION OF SANSKRIT—A Central Sanskrit Board has been set up with nine members to advise on matters relating to the propagation and development of Sanskrit.

EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED—*A National Advisory Council* advises the Government of India on all problems concerning education, training and employment of the physically and mentally handicapped. Scholarships are awarded to blind, deaf and orthopaedically handicapped students for higher education or for technical professional training. The training centre for the adult blind at Dehra Dun imparts training in handicrafts to about 150 blind men from all parts of the country. There is a sheltered workshop in this centre employing ten blind workers. The *Central Braille Press* was established at Dehra Dun in 1950 which produces braille literature in Indian languages. A model School for blind children was established in 1959 at Dehra Dun for providing kindergarten and primary education.

SOME ADVISORY BODIES AND SUBORDINATE OFFICES—There are some advisory bodies and subordinate offices under the

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Ministry of Education. The short description of these bodies and offices are given here—

National Committee on Women's Education—was set up in May 1958 to go into the various problems of girls and women's education. This is a scheme for the expansion of girls' education and training of women teachers.

Central Institute of Education, Delhi—is an all-India institution, established in 1947. Its two primary functions are —(1) to conduct research projects in education and psychology and (2) to conduct teacher-training and other courses leading to higher degrees at the post-graduate level in education and psychology.

Central Advisory Board of Education has the following main functions—(1) To advise on any educational question which may be referred to it by the Government of India or by any State Government (2) to call for information and advice regarding educational developments of special interest or value to India.

National Archives of India, New Delhi—It is the only archival repository of the Government of India in which are housed all important records from the early days of the East India Company. It is responsible for the preservation of records by up-to-date scientific processes. The nature of records, files and books at present maintained have are mostly of the following nature—(1) Records of the E.I. Company 1752-1858 (gaps). (2) Records of the Government of India from 1859 onword (3) Records of the defunct Residencies and Political Agencies in India. The books mostly belong to the category of printed documents or selections from records and other reference books relating to the modern period of Indian history and allied subjects.

The National Archives has research fellowship scheme and also training scheme in Archives-science. It publishes books and maintains a permanent exhibition of select records illustrating various phases of the modern period of India. It also does photo-duplication service for scholars and institutions. There is also a micro-filming unit.

INDIAN NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR CO-OPERATION WITH UNESCO—The Government of India have extended their full co-operation to UNESCO in implementing its various programmes. The Indian National Commission for co-operation with UNESCO was set up to promate understanding of objectives and purposes of UNESCO in the country more effectively. The Commission advises the Government of India in all matters relating to UNESCO. The Commission co-operates with UNESCO in implementing its programme of popularsing the objectives and purposes of U.N. and its specialised agencies. For this purpose, UNESCO makes large grants of money for translation of classics, for study tours of educational leaders, for UNESCO exhibitions, for scientific research, etc.

INFORMATION AND PUBLICATIONS—is one of the Divisions of the Ministry It deals with *Central Secretariat Library*, for which large grants are made, and *Central Educational Library*. Educational information is given to public, students, teachers, parents, educational

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institutions, Government bodies, international organisations, etc. The publications section publishes brochures, pamphlets, hand books, etc. It also collects statistics.

VICE-CHANCELLORS OF UNIVERSITIES

Name	*Vice-Chancellors*
Agra (1927)	K. P. Bhatnagar.
Calcutta (1857)	Dr. S. Mitra.
Bombay (1857)	T. M. Advani.
Madras (1857)	Dr. A. Lakshmanaswami Mudaliar.
Allahabad (1887)	K. P. Bhatnagar.
Lucknow (1921)	Kali Prasad.
Nagpur (1923)	C. Badkas.
Patna (1917)	Basist Narain Singh.
Bihar (1952)	Dr. Dukhan Ram.
Aligarh (1920)	Dr. Taher Saifuddin.
Delhi (1922)	Dr. N. K. Siddhanta.
Banaras Hindu (1916) ..	H. N. Bhagwati.
Andhra (1926)	Dr. V. S. Krishna.
Gorakpur (1957)	B. N. Jha.
Annamalai (1929)	T. M. Narayanaswami.
Mysore (1916)	N. A. Nikkam.
Osmania, Hyderabad (1918) ..	D. S. Reddy.
Kerala (1937)	K. C. K. E. Raja.
Kurukshetra (1956)	A. C. Joshi.
Utkal (1943)	Dr. Prankrushna Parija.
Jammu & Kashmir (1948) ..	Basheer Ahmed Sayeed.
Saugor M. P. (1946) ..	D. P. Mishra.
Rajasthan, Jaipur (1947) ..	G. C. Chatterjee.
SNDT Women's Univ. Poona (1951)	Sm. P. V. Thackersey.
Gauhati (1948)	S. K. Bhuyan.
Visva-bharati (1951) ..	S. R. Das
Jabalpur (1957)	Pandit Kunjilal Dubey.
Vikram (Ujjain) (1957) ..	Dr. Mata Prasad.
Punjab (1947)	A. C. Joshi.
Karnatak (1950)	D. C. Pavate.
Baroda (1949)	J. M. Mehta.
Gujarat (1950)	M. P. Desai.
Poona (1948)	Dr. R. P. Paranjpe.
Roorkee, Roorkee (1949) ..	A. C. Mittra.
Sardar Ballabhbhai Vidyapith (Anand 1955)	B. D. Patel.
Sri Venkateswara, Tirupati (1954)	Dr. S. Govindarajulu.
Jadavpur (1955)	T. Sen.
Burdwan University (1960) ..	B. K. Guha.
Indira Kala Sangit Vishwavidyalaya, Khairagarh (1958) ..	
Varanaseya Sanskrit Vishwavidyalaya, Varanasi (1958) ..	Prof. K. A. S. Iyer.

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Vice-Chancellors of Universities—(*Concld.*)

Marathwada University, Aurangabad (1958)	
Kalyani University (Bengal, 1960)	Dr. S. N. Sen Gupta.
Rudrapur Agricultural University (Rudrapur U.P., 1960) ..	K. A. P. Stevenson.
Ranchi University (1960) ..	Bishundeo Narayan Singh.
Bhagalpur University (1960). ..	B. P. Jamuar.
Bihar University ..	K. K. Banerjee.

UNIVERSITIES OF INDIA

Agra University, Agra : *founded* 1927 : Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 74.

Aligarh University, Aligarh : *founded* 1920 : Residential and Teaching ; Attached & Affiliated Colleges, 2.

Allahabad University, Allahabad : *founded* 1887 ; *reconstitution* 1921 ; Residential and Teaching ; Attached & Affiliated Colleges, 4.

Andhra University, Waltair : *founded* 1926 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Affiliated & Teaching Colleges, 50.

Annamalai University, Annamalainagar : *founded* 1929 ; Residential and Teaching.

Banaras Hindu University, Banaras : *founded* 1916 ; Residential and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 21.

Baroda University, Baroda : *founded* 1949 ; Residential and Teaching 21.

Bihar University, Muzaffarpur : *founded* 1952 ; *Type* and Residential and Teaching, 14.

Bombay University, Bombay : *founded* 1857 ; *Year of reconstruction* 1928, 1953 ; Affiliating and Teaching ; Affiliated and attached Colleges, 33.

Calcutta University, Calcutta : *founded* 1857 ; *Year of reconstruction* 1951 ; *Type* : Teaching & Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges ; 151.

Delhi University, Delhi : *founded* 1922 ; *Year of reconstruction* 1952 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached and affiliated Colleges, 23.

Gauhati University, Gauhati : *founded* 1948 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Affiliated and Attached Colleges, 35.

Gorakhpur University, Gorakhpur : *founded* 1957 ; Affiliating and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 13.

Gujarat University, Ahmedabad : *founded* 1949 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached & Affiliated Colleges, 93.

Indra Kala Sangit Vishwavidyalaya, Khairagarh : *founded* 1958; Affiliating and Teaching.

Jammu & Kashmir University, Srinagar : *founded* 1948 ; *Affiliating and Teaching* ; Attached & Affiliated Colleges, 25.

Jabalpur University, Jabalpur : *founded* 1957 ; *Type*: Affiliating and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 19.

Jadavpur University, Jadavpur, Calcutta : *founded* 1955 ; *Type* : Residential and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated colleges, 2.

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Jammu & Kashmir University, Srinagar : *founded* 1948 ; Affiliating and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 25.

Karnatak University, Dharwar : *founded* 1949 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 28.

Kerala University, Trivandrum : *founded* 1937 ; Affiliating and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 74.

Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra : *founded* 1956 ; *Typef* : Residential and Teaching.

Lucknow University, Lucknow : *founded* 1921 ; Residential and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 14.

Marathwada University, Auragyabad : *founded* 1958 ; Affiliating & Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 8.

Madras University, Madras : *founded* 1857 ; *years of reconstruction* 1904, 1923, 1929 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 102.

Mysore University, Mysore : *founded* 1916 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 45.

Nagpur University, Nagpur : *founded* 1923 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 30.

Osmania University, Hyderabad : *founded* 1918 ; Residential and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 29.

Punjab University, Chandigarh : *founded* 1947 ; Teaching and Affiliating : Jurisdiction ; Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and Pepsu ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 120.

Patna University, Patna : *founded* 1917 ; *Year of reconstruction* 1952 ; Residential and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 10.

Poona University, Poona : *founded* 1949 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 10.

Rajasthan University, Jaipur : *founded* 1947 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 34.

Roorkee University, Roorkee : *founded* 1948 ; Residential and Teaching.

Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapith, Vallabhnagar (Anand)—*founded* 1955 ; *Type* : Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 4.

Saugar University, Saugar : *founded* 1946 ; Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 35.

S. N. D. T. Women's University, Bombay : *Started* 1951 ; Affiliating and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 7.

Sri Venkateswara University, Tirupati : *founded* 1943 ; Affiliating & Teaching ; Attached & Affiliated Colleges, 19.

Utkal University, Cuttack : *founded* 1943 ; *Type* : Teaching and Affiliating ; Attached & Affiliated Colleges, 19.

Visva-Bharati University, Santineketan : *founded* as Statutory University 1951 ; Attached and Affiliating Colleges, 6.

Vikram University, Ujjain, Madhya Pradesh ; *founded* 1957 ; Affiliating and Teaching ; Attached and Affiliated Colleges, 37.

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS

1952-53	..	2,75,23,939	1955-56	..	3,39,23,593
1953-54	..	2,91,38,750	1956-57	..	3,50,80,893
1954-55	..	3,12,67,420	1957-58	..	

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INSTITUTIONS, STUDENTS AND EXPENDITURE

	No. of institutions	No. of students (in lakhs)	Total Expenditure (crores of Rs.)
1952-53 ..	2,98,759	275.24	137.64
1953-54 ..	3,13,344	291.39	147.74
1954-55 ..	3,43,071	312.67	165.01
1955-56 ..	3,66,641	339.24	189.66
1956-57 ..	3,77,837	360.06	206.29
1957-58 ..	3,94,292	380.62	235.67

INSTITUTIONS AND THEIR NUMBERS

	Primary Schools	Secondary Schools		Primary Schools	Secondary Schools
1951-52	2,15,036	22,639	1954-55	2,63,626	27,518
1952-53	2,22,014	24,059	1955-56	2,78,135	32,568
1953-54	2,39,382	25,767	1956-57	2,87,298	36,291
			1957-58	2,98,339	39,134

HIGHER EDUCATION

	Universities	Boards of Education	Research Institutions	Special Education Colleges	Prof. Colleges	Arts & Science Colleges	No. of Students
1955-56	32	11	34	112	346	712	6,81,179
1956-57	33	12	41	128	349	773	7,50,195
1957-58	37	13	43	147	475	818	7,98,908

BASIC EDUCATION

	No. of basic Schools		No. of Students	
	Junior	Senior	Junior	Senior
1955-56 ..	42,971	4,842	37,30,439	13,29,748
1956-57 ..	46,881	6,897	41,27,519	17,30,786
1957-58 ..	52,029	7,819	48,12,981	19,74,067

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CULTURE & LITERATURE IN INDIA

CULTURAL ACTIVITIES—From the official stand-point, cultural activities are mainly carried on by the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs. The Cultural Wing of this Ministry consists of three Divisions, namely, *Culture* (that covers organisations of culture within the country), *External Relations* and *Cultural Scholarships.*

Culture within the Country—consists of the following (1) grants to educational and library organisations (2) grants for strengthening of existing institutions of higher learing of all-India importance, such as, Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, etc. (3) financial assistance to eminent writers and artists in indigent circumstances (4) Establishment of an Institute of Indology (5) Development of modern Indian languages (6) Acquisition of Art objects (7) Publication of rare manuscripts (8) History of Freedom Movement which is being carried on by Dr. Tara Chand (9) Tagore Centenary Celebrations.

(12) *Museums and Art Collections*—Central Advisory Board of Museums has been set-up to advise the Government of India on matters relating to the reorganisation and development of museums in the country. The Ministry has under its control, *National Museum, New Delhi, Indian Museum, Calcutta, Victoria Memorial, Calcutta, National Gallary of Art, Indian War Memorial* and *Salar Jung Museum and Library.* Large sums of money are spent by the *Art Purchase Committee* for the acquisition of art objects.

EXTERNAL CULTURAL RELATIONS—This is a separate External Relations Division in the Cultural Wing in the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs for carrying on various activities aimed at promoting cultural relations with foreign countries. The activities of the Division cover : entering into cultural agreements, financial assistance to foreign cultural societies, etc., stipends to foreign nationals, sending out and inviting cultural delegations to India, arranging cultural exhibitions, exchanging publications, cultural information and art collections, and presentation of books, etc. etc.

(1) *Cultural agreements* with different countries.

(2) Financial assistance in the form of *ad hoc* grants is given to societies engaged in promoting closer cultural relations with foreign countries.

(3) *Cultural Delegetions* which include both Indian and foreign delegations.

(4) *Presentation of books, art objects and films.*

(5) *Grants to foreign institutes of culture.*

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(6) *Visit of Dignitaries.*

(7) *Bureau of Information* was set up by the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs to answer a large number of queries from the public and to build up a body of reference material relating to the activities of the Ministry.

(8) *Stipends to foreign nationals.*

(9) *Exhibitions.*

(7) *Indian Council for Cultural Relations* was established in 1949 with the object of establishing, revising and strengthing cultural relations between India and other countries.

(8) *Cultural Scholarships* are given by the Ministry for promotion of culture in various fields. From time to time foreign Governments/organisations also offer specific scholarships to Indian nationals with the object of promoting cultural relations with India. This Ministry now administers following Scholarships—(1) Central Overseas Scholarships Scheme (2) Union Territories Overseas Scholarships Scheme (3) Indo-German Industrial Cooperation Scheme, etc., etc.

Scientific, Technical and Cultural Scholarships—The Government of India have instituted scholarships on a large scale to encourage and promote scientific research and technical education, to meet the shortage of trained personnel in the country, to improve standards of teaching and research, etc. Following are the scholarships schemes—I—for *Indian Nationals*—(*a*) Central overseas scholarships scheme (*b*) Indo-German Industrial co-operation scheme.

INFORMATION BUREAU—This Bureau of the Ministry of Culture has up-to-date information on courses of study available in India and abroad which is given to all enquirers.

CULTURAL ACTIVITIES WITHIN INDIA—The following are the cultural activities within the country handled by the Ministry of Culture—

(1) *Financial Assistance to Eminent Writers, Artists, etc. in indigent circumstances.*

(2) *Grants to cultural organisations.*

(3) *Grants-in-aid to Institutions and Individuals engaged in literary activities.*

(4) *Establishment of an Institute of Indology.*

(5) *Development of modern Indian Languages.*

(6) *Publication of rare manuscripts.*

(7) *History of Freedom Movement is being prepared by Dr. Tarachand to be published in three volumes.*

(8) *Grands-in-aid to professional theatres for producing new plays.*

(9) *Manipur Duplex College.*

(10) *Tagore Centenary Celebrations.*

(11) *Akademies—A National Culture Trust* was set up to promote art and culture and foster the consciousness of art among the people. These objectives are carried on by the three Akademies : *Sahitya Akademi, Lalitkala Akademi* and *Sangeet Natak Akademi.*

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SAHITYA AKADEMI—Sahitya Akademi or the National Academy of Letters was formally inaugurated by the Government of India on 12th March, 1954. The Government of India Resolution which set forth the constitution of the Akademi described is as "a national organisation to work actively for the development of Indian letters and to set high literary standards, to foster and co-ordinate literary activities in all the Indian languages and to promote through them all the cultural unity of the country." Though set up by the Government, the Akademi functions as an autonomous organisation.

The President of the Akademi is Shri Jawaharlal Nehru and Vice-President Dr. S. Radhakrishnan. The supreme authority of the Akademi vests in the *General Council* which consists of 69 members, made up as follows : The President, the Treasurer, five persons nominated by the Government of India of whom one shall be a representative of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting and one of the National Book Trust, one person from each of the States, sixteen representatives of the sixteen languages recognised by the Akademi, twenty representatives of the Universities of India ; eight persons nominated by the Government of India for their eminence in the field of letters and two representatives, each of the Sangeet Natak Akademi and the Lalit Kala Akademi.

There is an *Advisory Board* for each language consisting of eminent writers and scholars, on the basis of whose advice the programme in the language concerned is formulated and implemented. Besides the 14 languages recognised by the Indian Constitution, the Akademi has also recognised English and Sindhi as Inguages in which its programme is to be implemented.

Besides its Head Office in New Delhi, the Akademi has established a Regional Office at Madras to conduct its programme in the South Indian languages, and a Production Office at Calcutta to look after the printing and production of some of its publications.

Current Programme—Among the main items in the Akademi's current Programme are the following :—

1. *Bibliography of Indian Literature (20th Century).*

2. *Critical editions of Kalidasa's Works—Meghaduta,* edited by Dr. S. K. De has been published. *Vikramorvasiva,* edited by Prof. H. D. Velankar and *Kumara Sambhava* edited by Dr. Surya Kanta will be released shortly, and *Sakuntala* edited by Dr. S. K. Belvalkar is in press. Critical edition of the other works are uder preparation.

3. *Anthology of Sanskrit Literature*—The volume covering the Epics and Puranas, edited by Dr. S. K. De and Dr. R. C. Hazra, is published and the volume covering Buddhist Literature in Sanskrit edited by Dr. Nalinaksha Dutta, as well as the volume on Inspirations by Dr. B. Ch. Chhabra, are in press.

4. *Histories of Literature*—Histories of Malayalam Literature by P. K. Parameswaran Nair and Bengali Literature by Dr. Sukumar Sen are published. Histories of Assamese Literature and Oriya Literature by Dr. Birinchi Kumar Barua and Dr. Mayadhar Mansinha respectively are in press. Histories of other Indian Literatures are under preparation.

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5. *Anthologies*—Anthologies of Assamese, Kashmiri, Punjabi, Tamil and Telugu poetry, of Vaishnav lyrics of Bengal, of one act plays in Gujarati, of short-stories in Gujarati, Telugu and Tamil, selection of Bharati's poems in Tamil, of Rajwade's prose in Marathi and of Diwan Kauromal's writings in Sindhi have been published. Many more anthologies and selections are in press or under preparations.

6. *Bharatiya Kavita*—1953 is published. The second and third volumes covering the years 1954-55 and 1956-57 are in press. The volume for 1958-59 is being edited and translated.

7. *Who's Who of Indian Writers*—More than six thousand entries of writers in various languages have been edited and the volume will be published by about December, 1960.

8. *Translations*—A large number of Indian classics and several foreign classics have been translated and published in several Indian languages.

9. *Contemporary Indian Literature*—A symposium covering all major Indian languages. A second enlarged edition is published. The work is also available in Hindi translation.

10. *Dictionaries*—A Russian-Hindi-Dictionary, compiled and edited by W. R. Rishi, has been published. A Tibetan-Hindi dictionary by Rahula Sankrityayan is in press. A Chinese-Hindi dictionary is beng planned.

11. *Sacred Writings of the Sikhs*—An authorised English translation of certain of the Sacred Hymns of the Sikh Scriptures has been brought out by the UNESCO under the auspices of the Akademi.

12. *Awards*—The Akademi gives anual awards of Rs. 5,000 each to the most outstanding books published in Indian languages.

13. *Journals*—Two half-yearly journals, one in English called *Indian Literature* and the other in Sanskrit, *Sanskrita Pratibha* are published.

14. *Tagore Centenary*—An exhaustive bibliography of Tagore's works is under preparation. First two volumes in the series of the select writings of Tagore in devanagari script, coverng 101 poems and 500 Songs with the text in devanagari and notes in Hindi, have been published. The remaining volumes covering short stories, dramas, novels, essays and Tagore's writings specially meant for children are in various stages of preparation and printing. They are all expected to be released before the date of the centenary, namely, May 1961. In addition to these devanagari editions, the selections are also being translated into all the major languages of India. The selections of 21 short stories of Tagore in Gujarati, Marathi and Punjabi have already been published. An English translation of Tagore's Bengali novel "Chokher Bali" has also been published. Besides a Tagore Centenary Volume in English containing articles in homage to the great poet by scholars and literatures from all over the world is also under preparation.

SANGEET NATAK AKADEMI

The *Sangeet Natak Akademi* (Academy of Dance, Drama, Music and Films) was inaugurated on January 28, 1953. The chief objec-

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tive of the Akademi is to foster and develop Indian dance, drama, music and films and to promote through them the cultural unity of the country. Also, the Akademi co-ordinates the activities of regional organisations, promotes research, sets up training institutions and sponsors festivals and cultural exchanges in the field of dance, drama and music.

Organisational Set-up : The Akademi functions through a General Council, and Executive Board, a Finance Committee and other Standing or *ad hoc* Committees which the General Council or the Executive Board may appoint. The General Council consists of a Chairman, Financial Adviser to Government, one nominee each from the 14 State Governments, two representatives each of Sahitya Akademi and Lalit Kala Akademi, 12 representative chosen in consultation with organisations in the field of Dance, Drama, Music and Films, four persons chosen in consultation with Indian universities, eight eminent persons in the field of Dance, Drama, Music and Films.

General Programme : The main task which the Sangeet Natak Akademi has set itself for the present, is to conduct survey and research in the existing art-forms found in various parts of the country, to record and film them in order to preserve them as part of our cultural heritage, and to publish, or to encourage publication of material about them. The Akademi also aims at developing and popularising these arts by organising and sponsoring Seminars and Festivals, by establishing new institutes or taking over the existing ones whenever possible or desirable, for imparting higher training. For all these purposes the Akademi has given recognition to about 208 organisations and institutions besides ten State Akademies and has given grants to carry on their projects.

The Akademi's programme also includes Awards to eminent artistes, for music, folk and classical dance, drama and films.

Activities of the Sangeet Natak Akademi.

A Music—A seminar of Indian music is organised. It holds national music festival. Efforts are being made to encourage, popularise and develop community singing in the country.

B. Drama—Akademi organises Drama seminer on the future of Indian drama. It sponsors a National Drama Festival. Akademi institutes the awards in the field of drama to be given from time to time for the best play-script and best play presentation. The Akademi has taken over the Asian Theatre Institute, sponsored by the Government of India in 1958. The Akademi started the National School of Drama, New Delhi in April, 1959 and integrated the above institute with the school.

C. Dance—A seminar of Dance Arts in India is organised by the Akademi. The Akademi took over the administration of Manipur College of Dance at Imphal.

D. Films—A film seminar is organised by the Akademi. A Film library has been started in the Akademi.

E. Awards—The Akademi has instituted various annual awards in different categories in the field of Dance, Drama, Music and Films.

F. Recognition and Financial Assistance—Akademi affiliates and grants recognition to qualified organisations all over the country.

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So far 197 organisations have been affiliated. It grants financial assistance to institutions and organisations.

G. Folk Music—Steps have been taken to record and film all extant folk-music under expert hands.

H. Folk Dance—The Akademi encourages folk dancers of the country every year by awarding prizes to best troups of dancers, during the National Folk Dance Festival held at New Delhi in connection with the Republic Day Celebrations.

I. Library & Museum—For research and study, the Akademi has started a central library and museum.

J. Publications—Publication grants and subsidies are given to various authors and institutions.

LALIT KALA AKADEMI

The Akademi was inaugurated at Delhi on August 5, 1954. This is a corporate body and would work through a General Council, an Executive Board, a Finance Committee and any other Committee or Committees set up by the General Council or Executive Board.

The primary object of the Lalit Kala Akademi (National Academy of Art) is to encourage and promote study and research in the fields of painting, sculpture, architecture and applied arts. It will also co-ordinate the activities of the regional or State academies, promote co-operation among art associations, encourage exchange of ideas between various schools of art, publish literature on art, and foster national and international contacts through exhibitions, exchange of personnel and art objects.

The Akademi's activities fall into several heads, *viz.*, (1) National Exhibition of Art every year, (2) Exhibitions from abroad, (3) Indian Art Exhibitions abroad, (4) Survey of Folk Arts and Crafts, (5) Copying of frescoes, (6) Publications Programme and (7) Recognition and aid to art organisations, etc.

1. **Exhibitions from Abroad :**

Exhibitions of (1) Canadian Paintings, (2) Chinese Handicrafts (3) Hungarian Folk Arts (1955), (4) Polish Art, (5) Contemporary German Art (1956), (6) Who Was Rembrandt, (7) Yugoslav Contemporary Graphics and Engravings, (8) Czechoslovak Glass Works (1958-59), (9) Exhibition of Indian Subjects by Soviet Artists, (10) Polish Graphic Art and (11) Contemporary Graphic Art from the German Democratic Republic.

2 **Indian Art Exhibitions Abroad :**

(1) Indian Art Exhibition to Eastern Europe, visiting Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania, Russia and Poland (1957), (3) Indian Art Exhibition to Villa Huegel (1959), (4) Indian Art Exhibition to Malaya (1959) and (5) Indian Art Exhibition to Cairo.

3. **Seminars :**

A Seminar on Art Education was organised in New Delhi by the Akademi in February, 1956.

In March, 1959, the Akademi organised a Seminar on Architecture, the only one of its kind to be organised in India.

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4. **Publications :**

(1) Portfolio of Contemporary Paintings.
(2) Picture Postcards of Indian Miniatures.
(3) Mughal Miniatures.
(4) Krishna Legend.
(5) Ajanta Paintings.
(6) Mewar Paintings.
(7) Kishangarh Paintings.
(8) Birbhum Terracottas.
(9) Bundi Paintings.
(10) Monographs on Ravi Varma, N. S. Bendre, S. Chavda and K. K. Hebbar.

The Akademi's regular journal 'Lalit Kala' is published twice a year.

INDIAN MINERALS

The mineral resources of India, though limited, are by no means inconsiderable and encompass a sufficient range of products that are necessary to make a modern civilised country, with feasible limits, industrially self-contained both in times of peace and war. The minerals of strategic and defence importance may be regarded to a considerable extent as adequate, though there is a serious deficiency in some key minerals, such as, tungsten, tin, mercury, sulphur and petroleum. But in the basic metals, iron, manganese, aluminium, magnesium, chronium—and in coal fuel, the country is well-supplied ; in the first three there is a large exportable surplus. India's resources in the new highly strategic atomic minerals—uranium, thorium, berryllium, zirconium, litanium and lithium—are sufficient ; in the case of thorium, the reserves are of considerable magnitude. In uranium, enough reserves have been known to give present self-sufficiency for industrial power generation.

The total reserve of coal in India down to the depth of 2,000 feet has been estimated at 66,000 million tons, while the reserve of coking coal at more than 2,000 million tons. India is endowed with very large deposits of iron ore and other raw materials to make her one of the most important producers of iron and steel in the world. Only the good quality ores containing 60-65 per cent of iron, low sulphur and variable phosphorous have been examined and the reserves estimated at about 21,000 million tons. India has considerable reserves of manganese ore of high grade quality, which is estimated at 112 million tons. In petroleum, however, India's reserves are limited. The only proved oilfield is in Upper Assam which produces about 7 per cent of India's oil requirements. Reserves of chromite are estimated at more than 1,320,000 tons. India leads in the production of ilmenite, the principal ore of titanium. The total reserves are estimated at about 250 million tons. There are large

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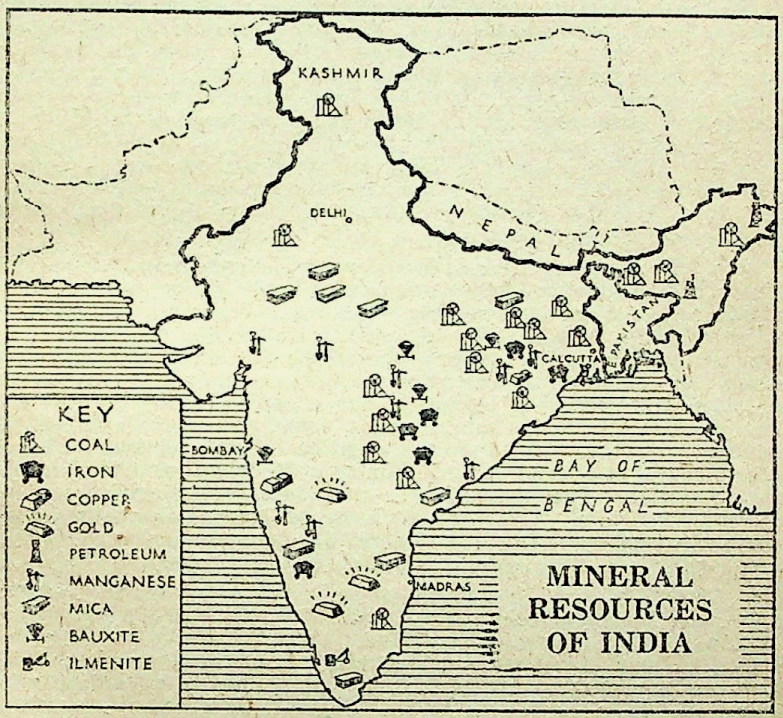
reserves of vanadium leaving titaniferous iron ores in Bihar and Orissa. Reserves of tungsten ores in Jodhpur and Bikaner are small. The only copper mine is in Singhbhum which satisfies 1/8th of India's needs. India is self-sufficient in aluminium ore (bauxite). The total reserves as per estimate are about 250 million tons. India is deficient in lead, zinc, antimony, tin, platinum, selenum and tellurium. India's gold comes from Kolar field in Mysore and Hutti mines in Hyderabad.



India has adequate supply of structural materials like limestone, clay, sand, gypsum. India's position is also satisfactory regarding mica, graphite, magnesite, kyanite and sillimanite needed for refractory and insulation purposes. India's reserves in mica, kyanite and sillimanite are very high. India produces 80 per cent of the world's supply of mica. Largest deposits of kyanite and sillimanite are found in India. India has limited resources in short fibre asbestos and high grade graphite. India is deficient in borates, iodine, potash, sulphur, nitrates and phosphates. There is an excellent deposit of talc in India.

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FOUR CATEGORIES OF INDIA'S MINERAL RESOURCES—The mineral resources of India can be divided into four categories—(1) minerals of which India's exportable surplus can dominate world market, (2) minerals of which the exportable surplus forms an important factor, (3) minerals in which it appears that the country is at present self-sustaining and (4) minerals for which India has to depend largely or entirely on foreign imports. To the first category belong iron ore, titanium ore and mica, while the exportable surplus under the second head includes manganese ores, bauxite, magnesite, refractory minerals, natural abrasives, steatite, silica, gypsum, monumental granites, monazite, courndum and cement materials. In the number of minerals, namely, coal, aluminium ore, mineral pigments, sodium salts and alkalies, rare earths, berylium, glass sand, nitrates, zircon and phosphates, the country is known to be self-sufficient. And lastly, the following are the minerals for which it has to depend solely on imports : copper, silver, nickel, petroleum, sulphur, lead, zinc, tin, flourides, mercury, tungsten, molybdenum, platinum, graphite, asphalt and potash.

Rapid Progress of Mineral Development—Since independence, the country has been taking important strides in the proper utilization of its under-ground mineral wealth. The expansion of the *Geological Survey of India* from a cadre of less than 50 to 350 geologists, geophysicists and technical officers, the institution of a well-organised *Bureau of Mines* for ensuring systematic mining, inspection, regulation and control of minerals, the organisation of the *Oil and Natural Gas Commission* for thorough investigation of the country's potential for petroleum and the creation of the *Atomic Energy Department* of a special Atomic Minerals Division, are steps in the right direction. The *three National Research Laboratories—Fuel Research, Glass and Ceramics and the Metallurgical*—have important contributions to make towards mineral development and technology.

MINES AND MINERALS CONSERVATION—With the achievement of independence, Government of India felt the great need of statutory rules for the conservation of mineral wealth and for the regulation and grant of mineral concessions. Thus the *Mines and Minerals (Regulation and Development) Act* was passed in September, 1957, which was amended by Act 15 of 1958. It applies to all minerals including oil. It gives powers to the Central Government to frame rules for the regulation of the terms and conditions of prospecting licences and grants of leases for the conservation and development of minerals and for the modification of existing licences and leases on payment of compensation.

The Industrial Policy Resolutions of the Government of India on April 6, 1948 and also of 1956 explicitly recognised minerals amongst the industries whose location must be governed by economic factors of all-India import or which require considerable investment or a high degree of technical skill and must consequently be the subject of Central regulation and control.

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS—*The Ministry of Steel,*

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Mines and Fuel of the Government of India has two Departments—*Department of Iron and Steel and Department of Mines and Fuel.* This Department of Mines and Fuel has the following offices and organisations—(1) Geological Survey of India (2) Indian Bureau of Mines (3) Oil and National Gas Commission (4) Office of the Coal Controller (5) Coal Board (6) National Coal Development Corporation Ltd. (7) Neyveli Lignite Corporation Ltd.

The allocation of work for the Department of Mines and Fuel is—Mines and Mineral policies, Indian Bureau of Mines, Geological Survey of India, Fuels including coal, lignite oil and gas. Under 'oil' is included exploration and drilling of existing and future refiniries and pricing.

MINERAL ORGANISATIONS—Important mineral organisations are as follows—

Geological Survey of India—was established in 1951. It is responsible for the preparation of the geological map of India, which forms the basis for all geological work including the appraisal of the mineral resources of the country. It is headed by a Director with his headquarters at Calcutta. For the purpose of fixed work, the entire survey region is divided into the following eight circles—Northern circle, Western circle, Central circle, Andhra circle, Bihar Circle, Orissa Circle, Eastern Circle and Southern Circle.

Mineral Information Bureau was set up in 1948 to give information and advice to industries. The main function of the Bureau is the dissemination in non-technical language of facts relating to Indian minerals, fuels, iron ore, ferro-alloy minerals, light and base metal minerals, precious metals, gems, minerals for chemical industries, industrial clays, sands and miscellaneous minerals.

National Mineral Development Corporation was set up on the 15th November, 1958 with an authorised capital of Rs. 15 crores, to undertake the exploitation of minerals in the public sector, excluding oil and natural gas and coal. The Corporation has been entrusted with the exploitation of iron ores in Kiriburu in Rourkela area for supply to Japan of approximately two million tons of iron ore per annum.

Indian Bureau of Mines was created in 1948 with headquarters in Delhi to function as a body of expert advisers to the Government of India on all matters relating to mineral development. The Bureau is today the chief national agency for discharging the various duties devolving on the Central Government under the Mines and Mineral (Regulation and Development) Act, 1958. The Bureau of Mines inspects mines to effect general improvement in mining methods; plans for the recovery of the largest possible quantity to conserve mineral wealth, eliminate waste in mining, processing and utilization; use modern methods of prospecting to locate mineral deposits; advises Central and Provincial Governments on questions relating to mineral concessions, royalty, rents, taxation, tariff and export policies; provides analytical and testing facilities for producers of, and traders in, minerals, etc.

A *Mineral Advisory Board* was set up during 1953 to advise the Government on all matters concerning the mineral industry. It ad-

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vises the Government on the export and import tariffs on minerals and mineral products. It reviews the production, internal distribution and consumption of minerals.

The Orissa Mining Corporation Ltd.—was incorporated in 1956 as a joint venture of the Central Government and the Government of Orissa for purposes of raising, assembling and transporting iron ore and other minerals and also for organising transport facilities to and from Paradip Port.

MINING EDUCATION—*The Indian School of Mines and Applied Geology* opened in 1926 at Dhanbad imparts high-grade technical training in Mineral Engineering and Applied Geology and offers a four-year diploma course in these subjects. Besides the two main subjects, the cirruculum includes detailed instruction in allied and subsidiary subjects, such as, electrical and mechanical engineering, chemistry, fuel technology, metallurgy and assaying, physics, mathematics, and foreign languages. At the end of four years, the successful students are awarded the Diploma of Associateship of the Indian School of Mines in mining, engineering or applied geology, as the case may be. The school has been thoroughly reorganised on the recommendations of the Reorganisation Committee. The new curriculum lays special emphasis on subjects like metallurgy, fuel technology, refractories and ceramics. A new Faculty of Mining and Applied Geology has been established at the Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad, which will be linked to Bihar University and will be known as the National School of Mines.

The Dhanbad School of Mines and Applied Geology has been reorganised to turn out a larger number of technicians every year. Mining education is also imparted at the Banaras Hindu University which has a *College of Mining and Metallurgy.*

DESCRIPTION OF MINERALS

Coal—is the most valuable mineral product and India stands seventh in the world. The bulk of Indian coal is concentrated in one enormous series of deposits known as *"Gondawana system.'* A little over 98 p.c. of Indian coal is raised from Gondawana coal beds and about 2 p.c. from tertiary beds. This system stretches across Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Central India, Madhya Pradesh and Hyderabad. The tertiary beds are found in Assam and Rajasthan. A little coal is produced in Andhra Pradesh. Bengal and Bihar coalfields are the sources of the best varieties of coal and it is also the only source of varieties of coal which can be used directly for metallurgical purposes. The coal-fields of Bihar and West Bengal account for about nine-tenths of India's output. Jharia and Raniganj are the principal coal-fields and from them about 70 p.c. of total output is obtained. There are important deposits of coal in Bihar, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Vindhya Pradesh, Orissa and Hyderabad. Tertiary coal and lignite deposits occur in Assam, Kashmir, Rajasthan, Madras and Kutch. A new coal field has been found in the Rangit Valley in Sikkim.

The total reserve of coal in India down to the depth of 2,000

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feet has been estimated at 66,000 million tons, while the reserve of coaking coal, etc., at more than 2,000 million tons.

India has now nearly 1,000 coal mines. The total output of coal at present is in the neighbourhood of 34 million tons. Of the total production Bihar accounts for 55 per cent., Bengal 28 per cent., M.P. 6 per cent., Hyderabad 4 per cent., etc.

A *Fuel Research Institute* at Digwadih, near Jharia, was started in 1949. The function of the Institute is to make survey of Indian coals and carry on researches.

So far as coal is concerned, the Government of India has the following organisations—Coal Controller, Calcutta; Coal Board, Calcutta; National Coal Development Corporation Ltd., Ranchi; Neyveli Lignte Corporation Ltd., Coal Council of India. The *Coal Council of India* is a high-power body with the main purpose of having review and studies under its overall supervision and guidance for planning and development of the coal resources of India.

Manganese—India ranks second in the world in the output of this mineral. The total estimated reserve of this mineral is 11.2 crore tons. Its chief use is in the manufacture of steel. It is also extensively used in the chemical industry and in the making of dry cell batteries. About 10 crore tons are in Madhya Pradesh and Bombay. The manganese mines of Madhya Pradesh contain some of the best known manganese ore deposits of the world. Deposits now being worked are in Singhbhum (Bihar), Panchmahal (Bombay), Balaghat, Bhandara, Chhindwara, Nagpur (Madhya Pradesh), Indore (Madhya Bharat), Visakhapatnam, Sundar (Madras), Shimoga (Mysore); Bonai, Keonjhar, Koraput, Patna State (Orissa) and Banswara (Rajasthan). Madhya Pradesh produces two-thirds of the all-India production. Principal customers of manganese are—United Kingdom, France, U.S.A., Norway, Canada and Belgium.

Lignite—is a soft brown type of coal, retaining the texture of wood from which it originated. From it are obtained a number of valuable products, among them being petroleum and diesel oils, waxes and hydrocarbon gases. Lignite quarry is situated at Neyveli in South Arcot district. It is 24 miles from Cuddolore and about 135 miles south-west of Madras. Spread out in an area of 100 sq. miles, lignite reserves at Neyveli have been estimated at 2,000 million tons. It is also available in Rajasthan, Saurashtra, Kutch and Kashmir. Lignite, though a member of the coal family, is different from commonly-used bituminous coal in, that it contains a relatively high proportion of moisture. In the S. Indian lignite, the proportion is computed at 30 p.c. to 35 p.c. The Government of India has undertaken the integrated Neyveli Lignite Project which envisages the mining of 3½ million tons of lignite per annum and its processing and utilisation for the generation of 2,50,000 kw of electricity, and the production of nitrogenous fertilisers in the shape of urea.

Gold—takes the third place in India, which is mined in the State of Mysore in Kolar, from where 95 per cent. of India's output of gold comes. India's production of gold is only about two per cent. of the total world production (excluding U.S.S.R.). The average grade of ore treated in Kolar is 6.83 cwt. gold per ton of ore. The only other wor-

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king mine, Hutti in Hyderabad, produces small quantities of gold. Goldbearing veins are also known to exist in Dharwar district of Bombay, Wynaad and Anantapur districts of Madras and at Lowa in the Manbhum district of Bihar. Alluvial gold is found widely distributed in many parts of the country—Assam, Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, East Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Kashmir and West Bengal, but the only sources of gold of any type are at Kolar and Hutti.

By *Kolar Gold Mines Acquisition Act*, 1956, the Government of Mysore has acquired the companies, namely, Mysore Gold Mining Co., (KGF) Ltd., Champion Reef Gold Mines of India, Nandidrug Mines Ltd., and Kolar Mines Power Station Private Ltd. The gold mines were taken over on 29th November, 1956.

Mica—India enjoys three main mica belts, situated in Bihar, Rajasthan and Madras. Bihar has the biggest field, estimated to cover and 600 sq. miles in Andhra Pradesh. The richest veins are those of Bihar ; they yield a high grade muscovite ruby mica (said to be the best in the world) ; from Rajasthan comes ruby, green and other sorts of mica ; and Andhra finds mostly the green and black stained varieties. Mica is an indispensible item in the manufacture of electrical and technical appliances and in the construction of motor cars, aeroplanes, radio-stores, flat-irons, window panes and many other products. Mica finds no market in India and producers must depend on foreign sale for their living. She supplies about 80 per cent of the world's requirements of good quality mica. Mica factories in India are regarded "as cottage industry" establishments, for they generally operate without the benefit of mechanical power and mica is dressed and processed or semi-processed by hand.

The next important use of mica is in the shape of micanite by electrical engineers, colliery companies, manufacturers of iron, steel and electrical apparatus. Waste and scrap mica is ground and used for wall-paper industry, manufacture of paints, rubber industry, etc.

Petroleum—is the last of five important minerals of India. India contributes only 1.10 per cent. of the world's production. India is producing 0.40 million tons of petroleum mainly from Digboi oil fields against an annual consumption of 5 million tons. Recently oil field has been found in Naharkutia, Assam, where oil is being dug at 10,000 ft. below.

Realising the importance of mineral oil in India's developing economy, the Government of India in the last Industrial Policy Resolution of April 30, 1956 decided that the future development of mineral oil will be the responsibility of the State.

The following places are being explored for oil exploration—Jwalamukhi and neighbouring areas in the Punjab, Rajasthan, Ganga Valley, West Bengal and Orissa, Cambay, Kutch and some other areas in Madras, Andhra and Kerala.

The Government of India have set up a high-power *Oil and Natural Gas Commission* for exploration, exploitation and refining of mineral oil in the country. The Commission is located at Dehra Dun.

Iron—India possesses some of the world's largest reserves of iron ore, mainly hematites and magnetites with iron content ranging

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between 60 and 70 per cent. Extensive deposits of iron ore occur in several parts of India, namely, Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra and Mysore. The iron ore reserves in India are assessed at one-fourth of the total world reserves and are estimated at 2,100 crore tons. A few, even amongst the greatest production countries of the world, can claim a higher percentage. The iron ores of India can be conveniently divided into three groups, namely, hematite ores, magnetite ores and laterite ores and iron-stone shales. Large deposits of hematite ores are known in Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and Bombay. Magnetite ores occur in Madras, Mysore, Bihar, Orissa and Himachal Pradesh. Extensive reserves of laterite ores and iron-shales are present in West Bengal, but these are not used at present. India's iron ore reserves are estimated to be of the order of 2,100 crore tons and the major part of it is of high grade.

Salt—With a coast-line of about 3,500 miles, inland sources in Rajasthan and Little Rann of Kutch and the rock salt mines in Mandi, India has possiblities of attaining a high position among the salt-producing countries of the world. India now claims to be self-sufficient in all qualities of salt, with the exception of rock variety. Salt is produced by solar evaporation on almost all the coasts of India, but particularly on the south-west and near Bombay. The principal salt producing areas are located in Saurashtra, Madras, Bombay, Rajasthan, Kutch, Travancore-Cochin and Orissa. The only one source of rock salt is at Mandi in Himachal Pradesh which produces annually one lakh maunds of crude rock salt. Besides the existing model farm and Salt Research Station at Wadala in Bombay, Central Salt Research Institute was establised in 1954 at Bhavnagar in Saurasthra. The principal centres of salt manufacture are as follows—(1) *Marine Salt Works*—(a) Saurashtra and Kutch (Bhavnagar, Jarffrabad Jamnagar, Lavanpur, Porbondar, Bharai and Kandla), (b) Bombay (Dharasana, Bhoyandar, Bhandup, Uran and Mithapur), (c) Madras (Nanpada, Pennuguduru, Madras, Cuddalore, Adirampatnam and Tuticorin), (d) Orissa (Puri, Huma, Gokhurkuda and Sumadi), (e) West Bengal (Contai), (f) Travancore-Cochin—along the coast; (2) *Salt Mines*—Salt mines in Mandi (Himachal Pradesh); (3) *Inland Sources*—(a) Rajasthan (Sambhar, Didwana and Pachbadra), (b) Bombay & Saurashtra (Kharaghoda and Kuda) and Rann of Kutch.

Chromite—is mainly used as an alloy and refractory. It comes mainly from Bihar, Orissa and Mysore.

Ilmenite—One of the most striking features of India's mineral industry is the rapid rise in the production of *ilmenite*. India has now become the world's leading producer of this metal. It is the whitest of all substances and will replace lead more and more in the manufacture of white pigment. The mineral occurs along the beach-sands of the eastern and western coasts of India. The total reserves are estimated at about 3,500 lakh tons.

Monazite—is available on the beach-sands of Kerala State and also on the beach-sands on the Coromondal Coast, existing in the form of beach-sands in association with ilmenite and is perhaps the

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largest and the richest in thorium in the world and also contains a small quantity of uranium. In order to conserve supplies for atomic energy development, exports are now prohibited under sec. 3 of the Atomic Energy Act XXIX of 1948. A factory for processing over 1,500 tons a year of monazite beach-sands has been recently set up by the Government of India at Alwaye (Kerala).

Orches—are well-known as mineral earth pigments. Occurances are fairly widespread in India ; chief producing areas being Madhya Pradesh, Vindhya Pradesh and Saurashtra. The entire production is retained for internal consumption.

Saltpetre—occurs as natural efflorescence in extensive areas in Bihar, U.P. and East Punjab. Crude saltpetre is used as manure, while refined saltpetre is consumed in the manufacture of fire works, blasting-powder, soap and matches and in glass, ceramic and tanning industries.

Zircon—The rare metal has come into prominence very lately as an accessory material for use in atomic energy and in alloy metallurgy. he main source of the mineral zircon is found associated with the ilmenite beach-sands of Malabar and Coramandel Coast.

Zinc—Zawar mines in Jodhpur are the only important source of zinc ore in India, which are being worked to meet much of her needs in the near future. India's resources are, however, poor.

Beryl—is found in small quantities in certain rocks which contain, generally, mica mines. India is a large producer of beryl, chiefly found in Rajasthan, Madras, Kashmir and Bihar.

Chromite—India has only moderate resources of chromite ore. It is both an alloy and a refractory. India's known reserves of chromite are approximately more than 1,320,000 tons. The more important deposits are distributed as follows—Singhbhum & Bhagalpur (Bihar), Ratnagiri (Bombay), Salem and Kistna (Madras), Mysore, Hassan, Kadur and Chitaldrug (Mysore), Keonjhar (Orssia), Ladakh (Kashmir). The deposits are being worked at present in Singbhum, Keonjhar, Kistna, Mysore and Hassan districts.

Dolomite—This is available in large quantities from Birmitrapur and Panposh areas in Sundergarh district of Orissa, where 90 p.c. of the mineral is produced. The other main producing States are Bihar and Madhya Pradesh.

Magnesite—is valuable to cement, glass, paper, rubber, cosmetics, refractories and aircraft industries. India's magnesite deposits are in the States of Bihar (Singhbhum), Kashmir, Madras (Salem), Mysore, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, Almora. By far the largest and the best magnesite deposits in India occur in the Salem district of Madras.

Bauxite—The ore from which alluminium is extracted is called bauxite. Our reserves of this ore are estimated at 250 million tons. These are to be found in Ranchi and Palamau districts of Bihar, Kaira and Thana districts of Bombay, Jabalpur, Balaghat and Bilaspur districts of Madhya Pradesh, Salem districts of Madras and

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Belgaum and Chickmagalur districts of Mysore. A few countries have such rich ore.

Cement—The ingredients of cement are all available in abundance in India. The principal cement producing centres are Porbandar in Kathiawar, Katni in M. P., Lakheri in Rajasthan, Jabalpur in M.P., Guntur in Madras, etc.

Kyanite—Perhaps the largest deposits of Kyanite in the world are found in India, which is the most important of the minerals used in the refractory and ceramic industries. Good workable deposits of kyanite occur in Seraikella and Kharswan in Singhbhum district, Bihar. Smaller deposits are also known to occur in the Mayurbhanj district of Orissa, in the Nellore district of Madras and in the Hassan district of Mysore. The Lapsa Buru deposit of Kharswan (Bihar) is the largest of its kind in the world and is the principal centre of production.

Feldspar—Workable occurances of feldspar are located in the States of Ajmer, Bombay, Bengal, Bihar, M. P., Madras, Mysore, Rajasthan and Vindhya Pradesh. The entire output is utilized in the country mainly in the ceramic industry.

Copper—The principal copper deposits of India, in order of importance, are in the Singhbhum district of Bihar, at Khetri and Singhana in Jaipur, at Daribo and Kho in Alwar (Rajasthan), at Bhotang and Dikchu in Sikkim and in the Guntur, Kurnool and Nellore districts of Andhra. The only deposits now being worked are those of Singhbhum. Here the mine is worked by Indian Copper Corporation. The Company at present mines at *Mosaboni and Badia* and works at Moubhandar and is the only copper smelter in India. About 370,000 tons of copper ores are being mined annually in Singhbhum, Bihar, but the production meets only 1/8th of India's needs.

Limestone—used principally for the manufacture of cement and for constructional purposes and also as a flax in melting of iron and lead ores—is found in Rhotasgarh in Sahabad district of Bihar, at Katni in M.P., in Bundi, Jodhpur, Sirohi in Rajasthan, in Rewah and Mahiar State of Madhya Bharat.

Tungsten—Tungsten ores are found in Jodhpur and Bikaner, but the reserves of this ore are small, caculated to be able to supply local needs of ferro-tungsten alloy industry.

Bentonite—is a valuable clay similar in its properties to Fuller's Earth. It occurs in limited quantities in Rajasthan, Bihar and Kashmir.

Gypsum—Gypsum occupies an important place in the industrial economy of India. Its importance lies in its use as a raw material in the manufacture of ammonium sulphate, an important fertiliser. The more well-known gypsum-bearing regions are in Rajasthan and Madras, but smaller deposits also occur in Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Kashmir and Rewa. The total reserves of gypsum in India are of the order of 144.3 million tons. Jodhpur Division in Rajasthan has an aggregate reserve of 38.5 million tons, while Bikaner Division has 79 million tons.

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Sulphur—The country has no sizeable source of native sulphur but ores of base metals are mostly sulphades and a large amount of sulphur is released as by-product in their treatment in metallurgical works, which could be collected. The present production of sulphur in India is almost negligible,—the country depending mostly on imports.

Steatite—is also known as soap-stone, pot-stone, talc and in its powdered form as 'French chalk.' It is one of the most variously used industrial minerals. It is available in Rajasthan and Madras.

Vanadium—There are large reserves of vanadium-bearing titaniferous iron ores in Singhbhum and Mayurbhanj.

Sillimanite—is a mineral of rare occurrence, which is used in the manufacture of furnace lining in the iron and steel and glass and ceramic industry. It is almost a monopoly of India. Deposits of sillimanite are known to occur in Assam, Madhya Pradesh and Rewa. The world's largest concentration of sillimanite occurs in the Khasi hills. Its minimum reserves have been estimated at 250,000 tons.

Clays—India has abundant sources of clays which are distributed in almost every State of the country. Besides the deposits of China clay, those of fire clay and other clays are also widespread. Deposits of China clay occur and are worked in Bihar, Assam, Bombay, Hyderabad, Madras, Mysore and Travancore. The Travancore deposits are most important. The cotton textile industry is the principal user of China clay in India. The entire production of clays in India is used for internal consumption in the manufacture of pottery, building bricks, cement, soap and for colour washing.

Pyrites—The deposits of pyrites from which sulphur could be obtained exist at Amjor (Bihar), Wynaad (Madras), Ingladhal (Mysore) and Tara Devi (Simla Hills). But no detailed estimates are available of the quantities of pyrites in the deposits.

Corundum—In addition to the working mines in Hassan and Mysore districts (Mysore) and Rewa (Vindhya Pradesh), Corundum, deposits are also known to occur in Khasi Hills (Assam) and South Kanara and Salem districts of Madras. The mineral is chiefly used as an abrasive.

Fuller's Earth—is chiefly obtained from Bikaner and Jodhpur in Rajasthan and a little is also obtained in M. P. Entire production is used for internal consumption.

Graphite—occurs in small quantities in various parts of India, namely, Ajmer, Hyderabad, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore, Orissa and Travancore. During recent years deposits have been worked in Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and Orissa only. The quantity produced falls short of the total requirements by about 25 p.c. which is met by imports. The mineral is mainly used in foundry, pencil and paint industry in India.

Antimony—There are small deposits of antimony in Lahalul (Kangra district, East Punjab) and at Shagor in Chitral State. The production is confined to one plant—Star Metal Refinery, Bombay.

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Calcite—Calcite deposits are found in Saurashtra. They are also found in Nawanagar, Porbandar, Junagarh and Amereli. The most important of the deposits are found in Amereli. It is used for the manufacture of calcium carbide, bleaching powder, as aflux in metallurgical operations, for making glaze in pottery or for making industrial lime.

Lead—Lead deposits now being exploited in India, are located at Zawar in Udaipur and at the Banjavi mines in Jaipur. These are now under lease to the Metal Corporation of India.

Titanium—The most important deposits of titanium minerals worked in India lie in Travancore on the south-west coast in five stretches along the coast—Nindakara (north of Quilon), Anjengo-Varkala (south of Quilon), Kovilam (south of Trivandrum), Muttampudur (near Colachel) and Cape Comorin-Liparum (on the eastern coast of Tinnevelly district). Recently titanium has attained, perhaps, the highest importance as strategic material, because the metal and its alloys have been found to have better qualities than the strongest steels and yet are lighter in weight than those steels.

Apatite—Only a small output of apatite is obtained from Singhbhum in Bihar and Trichinopoly in Madras. The entire production of the country is used for manures, which is estimated to meet only 5 per cent of the country's requirements of phosphatic manures, the balance being imported.

Asbestos—India has a limited resources of asbestos, mainly in Andhra, Bihar, Mysore and Rajasthan. Of the two chief varieties found in India, the chrysolite asbestos, which is the flexible variety amenable to spinning and hence more valuable, is found in Cuddapah (Andhra), while other deposits yield the tremolite type, which is less flexible. India is deficient in this mineral.

Barytes—The mineral is used mainly in the paint and petroleum industry in India. Deposits of barytes occur in Madras, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Anantapur and Cuddapah districts of Andhra Pradesh.

Precious Stones—Actual diamond mines are in Panna in Vindhya Pradesh over an area of 750 sq. miles. Geologically, the rock formation resembles that of Kimberly, South Africa, and Russian experts who visited the mining area recently reported that a daily output of 1,895 carats could be expected when the mines are fully mechanised. *Sapphires* of a very clear blue colour are obtained in Kashmir at an altitude of 14,000 ft. *Garnets* of a rich deep purplish red are found in Barwar District in Kishengarh State and the adjoining tracks of Jaipur State. *Emeralds* are chiefly obtained from Udaipur (Rajasthan) and from Ajmer.

Thorium—India's reserves of thorium, a potential atomic fuel, are on a scale of world importance. The known reserves of this metal in the coastal sand deposits are estimated at nearly half a million tons of thorium oxide. The source of this atomic metal is the mineral monazite which occurs in the ilmenite sands of Travancore and Madras coasts and in parts of Hazaribagh plateau as a surface placer.

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MINERAL PRODUCTION OF INDIA

	Gold (kilogram)	Gypsum (metric tons)	Manganese (000 metric tons)	Mica (000 quintals)	Kyanite (tons)	Copper (tons)
1955 ..	5,978	700,976	1609	236	11,929	353,054
1956 ..	5,932	863,216	1714	285	20,458	386,196
1957 ..	5,080	936,767	1681	309	44,339	403,929
1958 ..	4,823	794,429	1276	320	26,027	404,991
1959 ..	5,689	856,960	1187	287	16,013	397,353

	Bauxite (tons)	Chromite (tons)	Ilmenite (tons)	Building materials (Rs. 000)
1955 ..	81,172	89,349	250,774	362,86
1956 ..	91,225	52,686	335,590	370,07
1957 ..	96,750	78,542	296,221	418,38
1958 ..	136,907	62,950	309,175	438,66
1959 ..	124,486	83,875	298,250	485,99

INDEX NUMBER OF MINERAL PRODUCTION IN INDIA

(Base 1951=100)

	General Index	Coal	Iron	Chromite	Copper
1954 ..	107.7	106.9	117.8	272.5	93.0
1955 ..	112.8	110.7	127.2	535.0	95.7
1956 ..	116.8	113.7	133.2	315.5	104.6
1957 ..	132.8	125.6	138.4	470.3	109.5
1958 ..	126.0	128.4	164.1	376.9	109.8
1959 ..	125.6	133.3	212.5	502.2	107.9

	Gold	Ilmenite	Bauxite	Manganese
1954 ..	105.7	107.2	111.5	109.4
1955 ..	93.4	112.1	121.1	122.5
1956 ..	92.5	150.0	136.1	130.6
1957 ..	79.2	132.2	144.3	124.4
1958 ..	75.2	137.9	204.2	94.5
1959 ..	73.1	133.1	185.6	87.9

(*Monthly Abstract of Statistics, September, 1960*).

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UNITED NATIONS

ORIGIN—The necessity for forming a United Nations Organization was first discussed at Dumbarton Oaks, Washington D. C., between 21 and Oct. 7 1944. It was finally put to concrete shape by the delegates of 50 Allied Nations assembled at San Francisco between April 25 and June 26, 1945, where representatives of 50 nations signed the United Nations Charter. The U. N. officially came into existence on October 24, 1945.

PURPOSES OF U. N.—Four purposes of the U. N. are—(1) to maintain international peace and security, (2) to develop friendly relations among nations, (3) to co-operate internationally in solving economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems and in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and (4) to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining these common ends.

FINANCE—The United Nations is financed by the contributions from member States. Member States contribute to the expenses of the budget and to the Working Capital Fund on a scale determined by the General Assembly each year on the recommendation of its Committee on Contributions.

OFFICIAL LANGUAGES—The official languages of the U. N. are Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. Its working languages are English and French. Spanish is also the working language of the General Assembly.

MEMBERSHIP—Membership of the United Nations is open to all peace-loving nations which accept the obligations of the U.N. Charter and are able and willing to carry out these obligations.

ROSTER OF THE UNITED NATIONS

(as of 7 October, 1960)

Following the admission of a series of new States, the United Nations now has 99 members. They are listed below with, date of admission to the UN, area and population.

Member	*Date of Admission*	Area (Sq. kilometers)	Populations* Midyear—1959
Afghanistan	19 Nov. 1946	650,000	13,150,000
Albania	14 Dec. 1955	28,748	1,556,000
Argentina	24 Oct. 1945	2,778,412	20,614,000
Australia	1 Nov. 1945	7,704,159	10,061,000
Austria	14 Dec. 1955	83,849	..7,049,000
Belgium	27 Dec. 1945	30,507	9,104,000
Bolivia	14 Nov. 1945	1,098,581	3,416,000

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Member	*Date of Admission*	Area (Sq. kilometers)	Populations* Midyear—1959
Brazil	24 Oct. 1945	8,513,844	64,216,000
Bulgaria	14 Dec. 1955	110,669	7,793,000
Burma	19 Apr. 1948	677,950	20,457,000
Byelorussia	24 Oct. 1945	207,600	8,112,000
Cambodia	14 Dec. 1955	172,511	4,845,000
Cameroun	20 Sep. 1960	432,000	3,230,000
Canada	9 Nov. 1945	9,974,375	17,442,000
Central African Republic	20 Sep. 1960	617,000	1,190,000
Ceylon	14 Dec. 1955	65,610	9,612,000
Chad	20 Sep. 1960	1,284,000	2,630,000
Chile	24 Oct. 1945	741,767	7,465,000
China	24 Oct. 1945	9,796,973	679,503,000
Colombia	5 Nov. 1945	1,138,355	13,824,000
Congo (capital : Brazzaville)	20 Sep. 1960	342,000	810,000
Congo (capital : Leopoldville)	20 Sep. 1960	2,344,932	13,840,000
Costa Rica	2 Nov. 1945	50,900	1,126,000
Cuba	24 Oct. 1945	114,524	6,466,000
Cyprus	20 Sep. 1960	9,251	558,000
Czechoslovakia	24 Oct. 1945	127,859	13,564,000
Dahomey	20 Sep. 1960	115,762	1,750,000
Denmark	20 Sep. 1960	43,042	4,547,000
Dominican Republic	24 Oct. 1945	48,734	2,894,000
Ecuador	21 Dec. 1945	270,670	4,169,000
El Salvador	24 Oct. 1945	20,000	2,520,000
Ethiopia	13 Nov. 1945	1,184,320	21,800,000
Federation of Malaya	17 Sep. 1957	131,313	6,698,000
Finland	14 Dec. 1955	337,009	4,414,000
France	24 Oct. 1945	551,208	44,970,000
Gabon	20 Sep. 1960	267,000	425,000
Ghana	8 Mar. 1957	237,873	4,911,000
Greece	25 Oct. 1945	132,562	8,258,000
Guatomala	21 Nov. 1945	108,889	3,652,000
Guinea	12 Dec. 1958	245,857	2,707,000

* Population figures are estimates for midyear 1959 except for Yemen (1 July, 1949) ; Saudi Arabia (1 January, 1956); Liberia (1 July, 1956) ; China, Cuba, Iraq, Labanon, Uruguay (1 July, 1958) ; Guinea (1 January, 1959) ; Ukraine (15 January, 1959); Cambodia (April 1959); Bolivia (5 September, 1959); and Turkey (20 October, 1959). Sources : Area data from *Demographic Year Book* 1959 (Sales No. 59. XIII. 1) ; population date from *Population and Vital Statistics Report,* Statistical Papers, Series A, Vol. XII, No. 3 (Doc. ST/STAT/SER. A/54).

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Member	*Date of Admission*	Area (sq. kilometers)	Populations* Midyear—1959
Haiti	24 Oct. 1945	27,750	3,464,000
Honduras	17 Dec. 1945	112,088	1,887,000
Hungary	14 Dec. 1955	93,030	9,917,000
Iceland	19 Nov. 1946	103,000	172,000
India	30 Oct. 1945	3,263,373	402,600,000
Indonesia	28 Sep. 1950	1,491,562	89,600,000
Iran	24 Oct. 1945	1,648,000	20,149,000
Iraq	21 Dec. 1945	444,442	6,590,000
Ireland	14 Dec. 1955	70,283	2,846,000
Israel	11 May 1949	20,700	2,016,000
Italy	14 Dec. 1955	301,226	49,062,000
Ivory Coast	20 Sep. 1960	322,463	3,120,000
Japan	18 Dec. 1956	369,661	92,740,000
Jordan	14 Dec. 1955	96,610	1,636,000
Laos	14 Dec. 1955	236,800	1,760,000
Lebanon	24 Oct. 1945	10,400	1,550,000
Liberia	2 Nov. 1945	111,370	1,250,000
Libya	14 Dec. 1955	1,759,540	1,172,000
Luxemburg	24 Oct. 1945	2,586	324,000
Madagascar	20 Sep. 1960	590,000	5,280,000
Mali	28 Sep. 1960	1,204,021	4,330,000
Mexico	7 Nov. 1945	1,969,269	33,304,000
Morocco	12 Nov. 1956	443,680	10,550,000
Nepal	14 Dec. 1955	140,798	9,044,000
Netherlands	10 Dec. 1945	32,450	11,346,000
New Zealand	24 Oct. 1945	268,676	2,331,000
Nicaragua	24 Oct. 1945	148,000	1,424,000
Niger	20 Sep. 1960	1,188,794	2,555,000
Nigeria	7 Oct. 1960	..	..
Norway	27 Nov. 1946	323,917	3,557,000
Pakistan	30 Sep. 1947	944,824	3,557,000
Panama	13 Nov. 1945	74,470	1,024,000
Paraguay	24 Oct. 1945	406,752	1,718,000
Peru	31 Oct. 1945	1,285,215	10,524,000
Philippines	24 Oct. 1945	299,681	24,718,000
Poland	24 Oct. 1945	311,730	29,257,000
Portugal	14 Dec. 1955	92,200	9,052,000
Romania	14 Dec. 1955	237,500	18,256,000
Saudi Arabia	24 Oct. 1945	1,600,000	6,036,000
Senegal	28 Sep. 1960	197,161	2,570,000
Somalia	20 Sep. 1960	637,661	2,000,000
Spain	14 Dec. 1955	503,486	29,894,000
Sudan	12 Nov. 1956	2,050,823	11,390,000
Sweden	19 Nov. 1946	449,682	7,454,000
Thailand	16 Dec. 1946	514,000	21,881,000
Togo	20 Sep. 1960	57,000	1,120,000
Tunisia	12 Nov. 1956	125,180	3,925,000
Turkey	24 Oct. 1945	780,576	26,881,000
Ukraine	24 Oct. 1945	576,600	41,869000

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Member	*Date of Admission*	Area (sq. kilometers)	Populations* Midyear—1959
Union of South Africa	7 Nov. 1945	1,223,409	14,673,000
USSR	24 Oct. 1945	22,403,000	210,500,000
United Arab Republic**	24 Oct. 1945**	1,184,479	29,623,000
United Kingdom	24 Oct. 1945	244,016	52,157,000
United States	24 Oct. 1945	9,363,387	177,702,000
Upper Volta	20 Sep. 1960	274,122	4,030,000
Uruguay	18 Dec. 1945	186,926	2,700,000
Venezuela	15 Nov. 1945	912,050	6,512,000
Yemen	30 Sep. 1947	195,000	4,500,000
Yugoslavia	24 Oct. 1945	. 255,804	18,448,000

HEADQUARTERS AND OFFICES—New York, U.S.A. The European office of the U.N. is in Geneva. From 1954 U.N. Information Centres have been operating at Athens, Bogota, Buenos Aires, Belgrade, Cairo, Copenhagen, Geneva, Karachi, London, Mexico city, Monrovia, Moscow, New Delhi, Paris, Prague, Rio de Janeiro, Shanghai, Sydney, Teheran and Washington.

UNITED NATIONS' FLAG—The flag is light blue in colour and emblazoned in white in its centre is the United Nations' symbol, a polar map of the world embraced by twin olive branches.

ORGANS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

Principal organs of the United Nations are—(1) *General Assembly*; (2) *Security Council*; (3) *Economic and Social Council*; (4) *Trusteeship Council*; (5) *International Court of Justice*; (6) *Secretariat.*

GENERAL ASSEMBLY—consists of all members of the United Nations, each with one vote but none with veto power. The General Assembly meets once a year in September. It may also hold special sessions. Voting on important questions is by a two-thirds majority. On other questions it is by a simple majority. The work of the General Assembly is divided between seven Main Committees.

Committees—To facilitate its work, the General Assembly breaks up into seven Main Committees: *Political, Economic, Social, Trusteeship, Legal, Administrative* and a *Special Political Committee* sharing the work of the Political Committee. Each Committee deals with a different aspect of the Assembly's work. All members have the right to be represented on each of the Committees.

SECURITY COUNCIL—has eleven members, five of which (United States, Britain, France, Russia and Nationalist China) are

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**Egypt and Syria both of which became Members of the United Nations on 24 October, 1945, formed the United Arab Republic as the result of a plebiscite held in Egypt and Syria on 21 February, 1958.

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permanent. Six non-permanent members are elected by the General Assembly for a 2-year term. The Security Council is organised to be able to function continuously. Each member acts as the Council's President for one month. A negative vote by any permanent member is a veto. The Security Council has "primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security."

SUBSIDIARY ORGANS OF THE SECURITY COUNCIL.—

(i) *MILITARY STAFF COMMITTEE*—consists of the Chiefs of Staff of five permanent members or their representatives.

(ii) *DISARMAMENT COMMISSION*—was established by the General Assembly under the Security Council. It has the same membership as the Council, plus Canada which is not a member of the Council.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL—is composed of 18 member nations elected by the General Assembly for 3-year terms serving a 3-year term. This Council works toward establishing lasting peace by helping the poor, the sick and the illiterate all over the world.

The Council works through Commissions and Committees—(1) *Transport and Communications Commission*; (2) *Statistical Commission*; (3) *Population Commission*; (4) *Social Commission*; (5) *Commission on Human Rights*; (6) *Commission on the status of women*; (7) *Commission on Narcotic Drugs*; (8) *Commission on International Commodity Trade.*

Three *Regional Economic Commissions* have also been established —Economic Commission for Europe, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East and Economic Commission for Latin America.

TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL—Trusteeship Council works toward the advancement of 19 million people who live in 10 Trust Territories. It is composed of fourteen members: Australia, Belgium, France, Italy, New Zealand, United Kingdom and United States which administer trust territories; China and U.S.S.R., other permanent members of the Security Council, which do not administer trust territories; and five other members elected by the General Assembly serving a 3-year term.

TRUSTEESHIP TERRITORIES—(1) New Guinea (Australia), (2) Ruanda-Urundi (*Belgium*), (3) Cameroons and Togoland (*France*), (4) Western Samoa (*New Zealand*), (5) Cameroons, & Tanganyika (*United Kingdom*), Nauru (*Australia*), (6) Somaliland (*Italy*), (7) the Territory of the Pacific Islands composed of the former Japanese-mandated islands of Marshalls, Marianas (with the exception of Guam) and Carolines, is a strategic Trust Territory administered by the United States of America.

INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE—It is the principal judicial body of the United Nations. It is a Court of Law and deals with legal questions only, not with political disputes. All countries which are parties to the Statute of the Court can refer to it any case they wish. In addition, Security Council may refer a legal dispute to the Court and all organs of the U.N. can ask the Court for an advisory opinion on any legal question.

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The Court consists of fifteen Judges elected by the General Assembly and the Security Council, voting independently. The Judges are chosen on the basis of their qualifications, not on the basis of their nationality. Care is taken, however, to see that the principal legal systems of the world are represented in the Court. No two judges can be nationals of the same State.

The seat of the International Court of Justice is at the Hague, the Netherlands.

SECRETARIAT—is the office staff of U. N. carrying on its day-to-day operations and is composed of the Secretary-General and of an international staff appointed by him under regulation established by the General Assembly. The Secretary-General is appointed for a term of five years.

SPECIALISED AGENCIES

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (L.L.O.) was established in 1919. The purposes of I.L.O. are to contribute to the establishment of a lasting peace by promoting social justice ; to improve, through international action, labour conditions and living standards ; and to promote economic and social stability.

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANISATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS (FAO.)—The chief aims of F.A.O. are (1) to help nations raise the standard of living, (2) to improve nutrition of the peoples of all countries, (3) to increase the efficiency of farming, forestry and fisheries, (4) to better the condition of rural people and, through all these means, to widen the opportunity of all people for productive work. F.A.O. was founded on October 16, 1945. *Headquarters* : Viale delle Terme Di Caracalla, Rome, Italy.

UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANISATION (UNESCO)—"The purpose of the organisation is to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms, which are affirmed for the peoples of the world without distinction of race, sex, language or religion by the Charter of the United Nations." It was established on 4th Nov., 1946. *Office* : Unesco House, 19, Avenue Kleber, Paris 16, France.

INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION ORGANISATION (ICAO)—The purpose of ICAO is to study problems of international civil aviation and the establishment of international standards and regulations for civil aviation.

INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT (BANK)—was established on Dec. 27, 1945. The purpose of the BANK is to lend money to rebuild war-torn areas and to develop under-developed areas. (The BANK is capitilised at 10 thousand million dollars. Shares are only available to members). *Headquarters* : 1818 H. St. N.W., Washington 25 D.C.

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INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND (FUND)—was established on Dec. 27, 1945 when Articles of Agreement drawn up at Bretton Woods Conference in July 1944 came into force. The purpose of the FUND is to help countries exchange one kind of money for another. *Headquarters* : 1818 H. Street, Washington 25, D.C

INTERNATIONAL FINANCE CORPORATION (IFC)—The Corporation came into force on July 20, 1956. Though affiliated with the International Bank, it is a separate legal entity and its funds are entirely separate from those of the Bank. Its objective is to promote economic development by encouraging the growth of productive private enterprise in its member countries, particularly in the less-developed areas. *Headquarters* : 1818H. Street NW, Washington D. C.

INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY (IAEA)—Statute for IAEA approved on October 26, 1956 at a conference held at U.N. Headquarters, New York, came into force on July 29, 1957. Though not a specialized agency, it is under the aegis of the U.N. The purpose of the Agency is to promote the peaceful uses of atomic energy and to ensure that the assistance provided by it, at its request or under its supervision or control, is not used in such a way as to further any military purpose.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANISATION (WHO)—It sets down as the objectives of this Organisation "the attainment of all peoples of the highest possible level of health." Its services are of two kinds—advisory and technical. It came into being on April 7, 1948. *Headquarters* : Palais de Nations, Geneva, Switzerland.

UNIVERSAL POSTAL UNION (UPU)—The purposes of UPU are to assure the organisation and perfection of the various postal services and to promote the development of international collaboration. To this end, member countries are united in a single postal territory for reciprocal exchange of mail.

It was established in 1874 by Universal Postal Convention of Berne, Switzerland. *Headquarters* : Berne, Switzerland.

INTERNATIONAL TELECOMMUNICATION UNION (ITU)—Its purposes are to set up international regulations for telegraph, telephone and radio services to further their development and extend their utilization by the public at the lowest possible rates.

WORLD METEOROLOGICAL ORGANISATION (WMO)—The purposes of WMO are to co-ordinate, standardise and improve world meteorological work. The WMO came into existence on March 23, 1950.

Headquarters : 14 Avenue de la Paix, Geneva, Switzerland.

INTER-GOVERNMENTAL MARITIME CONSULTATIVE ORGANISATION (IMCO)—The purposes of the Organisation are to promote collaboration among Governments in technical problems of international shipping and to encourage removal of discriminatory treatment by Governments and unfair restrictive actions by shipping concerns.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE ORGANISATION (ITO) :

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General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (*GATT*)—Although the establishment of ITO and the bringing into operation of the Havana Charter, on which it was to be based, has not taken place, but one of the main objectives of that Charter has been embodied in an international commercial treaty, known as General Agreement on Tariff and Trade (GATT). GATT has brought into operation a code of conduct in international trade, which is virtually the same as the commercial policy section of the Havana Charter.

U. N. Information Centre in India—U. N. Information Centre, Theatre Communications Building, Connaught Place, Queen's Way, New Delhi 1. *Area Covered*—Burma, Ceylon, India.

INDIAN PORTS

INDIAN PORTS—With a coast-line of 3,500 miles, India possesses only six major ports, or one to every 60 million of its inhabitants. The *major ports* of India are Bombay, Cochin and Visakhapatnam Madras, Calcutta and Kandla. Bombay, Cochin and Visakhapatnam provide natural harbours. Madras has an artificial one, barely protected from weather, particularly during October and November when cyclones prevail. Calcutta lies at the head of a 120-mile-long turbulent river which has a wide range of tides to which deep-drafted ships have to suit themselves. A sixth, Kandla in Cutch, has been recently developed. Kandla serves the vast hinterland of the Punjab, the north, western and central India more economically than Bombay. Technically, major port is one which is capable of taking ocean-going steamers with a registered tonnage of 4,000 or more and berth them along harbour an d it must carry on a minimum requisite trade of 5,000,000 tons per annum. The ports of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras are administered by statutory port authorities, subject to the overall control of the Central Government. The ports of Cochin, Visakhapatnam and Kandla are administered by the Central Government itself. The Port Trusts and Ports Amendment Act of 1951 ensures uniformity in port administration, brings greater measures of central control. The Indian Coast-line is also served by a large number of *minor ports*, about 225, of which 150 are working ports, which together handle a coastal and overseas traffic of about 50 lakh tons per annum. Minor ports are under the control of the maritime State Governments. The following important points are to be noted—(1) 80 per cent of all trade passes through the six major ports; (2) 75 per cent of the traffic of the major ports falls to the share of Calcutta and Bombay. (3) At Calcutta and Visakhapatnam, the larger share of the traffic consists of exports, while at Madras, Cochin and Bombay imports predominate. At Madras, exports have usually been about one-third of imports.

MAJOR & MINOR PORTS—Along the 3,500-mile coastline of

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India, there are six major ports, 20 intermediate ports and about 200 minor ports. Of the six major ports, Calcutta, Vishakhapatnam and Madras are on the eastern sea-board and Bombay, Cochin and Kandla are the west coast ports. The administration of minor ports is primarily the responsibility of State Governments concerned. The Government of India renders technical advice, whenever asked for or considered necessary and also gives financial assistance in the form of loans for the execution of the development schemes. The State-wise distribution of minor working ports as follows—Orissa 2, Madras 18, Kerala 12, Andhra 6, Mysore 21, Bombay 97. The Port (Technical) Committee distinguished a major port as one capable of taking in ocean-going steamers with a gross registered tonnage of 4,000 tons or more. There is a further sub-classification of ports. Other ports with an annual cargo tonnage below 100,000 but not less than 1,500 tons or which have any importance for only reason (such as passenger amenities customs or naval requirements, etc.) are classified as *intermediate* ports and the rest as *minor ports*. These intermediate and minor ports are the responsibility of the State Governments except those situated in centrally administered territories.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP—The administration of major ports is under the Ministry of Transport and Communications. Under the Indian Constitution, the administration of "major ports" is the respossibility of the Central Government. The major ports of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras are administered by the Port Trusts constituted under the respective Ports Trusts Act. The ports of Cochin, Visakhapatnam and Kandla are at present administered directly by the Department of Transport and Communications through an Administrative Officer in the case of Cochin and Visakhapatnam and a Development Commissioner in the case of Kandla. The Port Trusts and Ports Amendment Act passed in 1951 bring about uniformity in port administration and ensures greater Central control and supervision in the matter of policy. National Harbour Board was constituted in 1950 consisting of the representatives of the Government of India and major port authorities to advise Government on the general policy relating to the development of ports, specially the minor ones.

NATIONAL HARBOUR BOARD—The Government of India have formed a National Harbour Board in 1950, to advise the Government on important problems relating to the administration and development of ports and harbours in the country. The Board is, for the present, composed of representatives of the Ministries concerned, of the Government of India, State Governments and of the major port authorities and has as its Chairman the Minister for Transport and Railways. There are 18 members on the Board. The National Harbour Board constitutes the principal forum for discussing common problems relating to ports in their specialised aspects, such as the need for technical personnel and equipment, the pooling of technical knowledge, the method of control and administration, laws relating to ports and

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their financial position, etc. The Board also pays due regard to the effects of changes in port policy, generally in regard to industry, trade and railways.

DESCRIPTION OF PORTS

1. Kandla—With the loss of Karachi after partition, there is no big port along 1,000 mile-long coast-line between Bombay and Karachi to serve vast hinterland. So in 1948 the Government of India accepted the recommendation of the West Coast Major Port Development Committee that Kandla in the Gulf of Kutch, where Kandla creek forms a good natural deepwater harbour, should be developed as a major port to serve central and north-west India and to relieve the pressure on Bombay. Kandla was declared a major port in April 1955 with a hinterland—Rajasthan, Punjab, Delhi and north-west Uttar Pradesh, covering an area of 2,75,000 square miles with a population of 45 million. Four Curgo berths were included in the first stage development of the port. Two were completed and thrown open in March, 1957 and the remaining two in July of the same year.

To open the hinterland, a metre-gauge railway line was completed in 1952 upto Deesa in the north of Bombay State on the Western Railway, about 174 miles distant. The hinterland for the new port is Gujarat, Rajasthan, Ajmer, Delhi, Punjab, West Uttar Pradesh. West port.

Bombay.—Situated almost midway on the west coast of India, Bombay is the only natural deep-water harbour on this side of the country. Possessing almost all the natural facilities for shipping, it is one of the safest and most spacious of the great seaports of the world, providing secure and ample shelter for ships throughout the year. Almost one-half of the foreign trade of India passes through Bombay Port. The affairs of the port are under the supervision and control of the Bombay Port Trust. The harbour covers 75 square miles and provides secure and ample shelter for shipping at all seasons of the year, being 14 miles long, 4 to 6 miles wide with a general depth varying from 22 to 40 feet. There are three main docks and a number of open wharves for country crafts. Besides the enclosed docks, there are situated along the harbour a number of 'Bunders' or open wharves and basins, where the traffic carried by coasting and country crafts and "overside" cargo from the docks and stream is handled. Seeds, hides and skin, cotton, oil cakes, piecegoods, food grains, turmeric, ores, tobacco are chief exports.

There are three docks at Bombay Port, *viz.*, Alexandra Dock, Victoria Dock and Princes' Dock.

The Bombay Port Trust is administered by a Chairman appointed by the Government and a Board of Trustees. The entire administration is subject to the provisions of the Bombay Port Trust Act, 1879.

Madras—The third largest port of India, situated on the east-coast of India, has a vast hinterland lying in the States of Madras, Andhra Pradesh and Kerala. It is controlled by a statutory

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body, the Madras Port Trust. It was an open roadstead with surf-beaten coast line, but the present harbour has been formed by two concrete walls projecting into the sea. It is an artificial port developed by man's ingenuity. It has at present nine alongside berths, besides several mooring berths, and the Buckingham Canal links it with a rich tobacco-growing region. It is well-served with rail and road communications, has a modern airport, and the Buckingham Canal, which links the city with the tobacco-growing areas, brings large tonnages for export down to the city.

Chief imports are oil, coal, foodgrains, metals, timber, textiles, chemical manures, machinery, steel, hardware, etc. Chief exports are hides and skins, edible oils, textiles, ores, tobacco, onions, mica etc.

Calcutta—is the largest terminal port in south Asia. It commands the largest and the richest hinterland. It not only handles the import and export trade of West Bengal, Assam and Bihar, but most of the exports of U.P., Orissa and even Madhya Pradesh are sent through Calcutta port. The port handles annually about 10 million tons of cargo, which is more than half the seaborne trade of India. The chief exports are coal, tea, gunnies, bone and bone-meal, skins. hamp, iron and steel manufactures, lac, oil other than petroleum, scrap ones, pig iron, hides, mica. The principal imports are salt, food-grains and flour, machinery, petroleum, iron and steel, metals other than iron and steel, lubricating oil, cement, rubber, chemical products, soda ash, sugar, timber, tobacco, paint, varnish, etc. It is situated on the Hooghly river, 90 miles from the Bay of Bengal, and is the clearing centre for the whole of the trade, both inward and outward, of north-eastern India, where it forms the terminal of railway, road and inland waterways system and for ocean-going and coastwise-shipping. Calcutta suffers from the inevitable disadvantages due to its location several miles inland on the bank of the estuarine Hooghly, which is subjected to strong tides and bores from the sea to a distance of 160 miles upsteam. Calcutta's shipping is at the mercy of the tides. The ships can enter and clear only at a fixed hour corresponding with the tides. Port of Calcutta has two main sets of docks—Kidderpore Dock and King George's Dock. At Garden Reach (Kidderpore) there are five jetties. The Calcutta jetties are nine in number. At Budge Budge, some 14 miles from Calcutta, there are eight floating jetties for oil tankers. There are five dry docks in the port of Calcutta.

Cochin—It is 580 miles south of Bombay and 200 miles north of Cape Comorin. It is the finest natural harbour in the East. Behind an opening from the sea which is about 400 yards wide, there is an area of 120 sq. miles of sheltered backwater, a calm harbourage all the year round within a vast expanse of lagoons. Even in the worst monsoon weather, vessels can lie comfortably in the harbour and carry on landing and shipping operations. The port of Cochin serves most of the Malabar and Travancore-Cochin area and is an important nerve centre of commerce and trade. It lies on the direct route to Australia and the Far East from Europe. Its hinterland is rich in natural produce, such as pepper, cardamoms, tea, coffee, rubber, timber, etc. Other products of the area are Mangalore tiles, coir and coir products

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and lemon grass oil. The port, which includes the Willingdon Island, is situated in an area famous for its system of backwaters and inland waterways. The entrance channel to the harbour gives access to about 120 square miles of navigable backwaters.

Cochin port is directly administered by the Ministry of Transport and Communications of the Government of India through the Administrative Officer, assisted by an Advisory Committee.

The range of exports now covers coir yarn, fibre and mats and mattings, all state produce, cashew-kernels, cashew-shell liquid, spices, lemongrass oil, marotli oil, raw earth concentrates, cotton, handloom piecegoods, cotton sewing thread, crude drugs, soap, hydrogenated oil and glycerine. Imports cover a wide field including coal, chemicals, grains, hardware, paper, petroleum and petroleum products, copra and metals.

Visakhapatnam—is a great ore-exporting port and is the only landlocked and protected port in India and is situated about midway between Calcutta and Madras. The port is controlled by the Ministry of Transport and Communications. The Port Administrative Officer is assisted by an Advisory Committee. Owing to a hill-range bordering the sea, harbour remains concealed from the vessels plying on the ocean outside. This fact added much to its strategic importance. In October 1933, the port was opened to ocean-going ships. The principal articles of export from the port are manganese ore, bunker coal, tobacco, myrobalan, and oilseeds. Exports are much larger than imports since the port does not serve any large consuming area, while two-thirds of the exports is made up of manganese ore, most of which comes from Madhya Pradesh.

It is now the centre of ship-building industry in India, where Scindia Steamship Company first established ship-building yards.

INTERMEDIATE AND MINOR PORTS

Saurashtra Ports—For purposes of administration, all the ports in Saurashtra have been divided into five groups, each under a port officer with headquarters at the most important port in the group. The five groups are—

Porbandar is on open roadstead in the Arabian sea used by sailing craft and lighters.

Bhavnagar is the most developed port of Saurashtra.

Bedi is a well-equipped lighterage port on the south side of Gulf of Kutch.

Veraval is located on the south-west coast of Saurashtra in the Arabian Sea.

Okha—is an western Indian port situated in a detached portion of Baroda. It lies in a strategic position at the extreme north-east point of the Kathiawar peninsula. The port is available even to large ships at all states of tides and at all seasons of the year. This port, from the marine point of view, is easily the finest of the smaller ports of India.

Navlakhi—is one of the chief ports of in the Gulf of Kutch. It is one of the finest lighterage ports in India.

Mandvi is an open sea roadstead in the Gulf of Kutch.

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Surat—situated 14 miles from the sea with which it is connected by a river, is navigable only by small country crafts. Surat was one of the earliest and most important of the East India Company's factories. But the trade of Surat has considerably declined due to the rise of Bombay port.

Tuticorin—This port is open all the year round and has, next to Madras and Cochin, the largest trade in southern India. The harbour is so shallow that steamers anchor about 5 miles from the shore and continuous dredging is necessary to keep the channel open between the sea and roadstead. A Port Trust was formed in 1924. There is a considerable trade with Ceylon in rice, pulses, onions, chillies and livestock.

Mangalore—is a tidal port served chiefly by backwater communication with hinterland. The backwater of Mangalore is 3½ miles long and 2,000 ft. wide. Mangalore is the north-western terminus of Southern Railway. The chief exports to Europe are pepper, tea, cashew kernels, coffee, sandalwood from Mysore, rice, salt fish, dried fruits, fish manures. Mangalore is the favourite port on the coast for the Laccadive and Amindive Islanders who bring their coir and other coconut produce for sale.

Karwar—is located in the shelter of Karwar head in the Arabian sea.

Kozhikode—is some 42 miles from Tellicherry and 90 miles from soon from May to September. The principal exports are coir, coir fibre, copra, coffee, tea, pepper, ginger, rubber, groundnut, raw cotton and fish manure.

Alleppey—is the premier port and commercial centre in Kerala and is situated about 35 miles south of Cochin. A canal connects the port with the interior backwaters. It possesses a roadstead affording safe anchorage during the greater part of the year. The chief exports are copra, coconuts, coir fibre and matting, cardamoms, ginger and pepper.

Orissa Ports—are *Chandbali* and *Paradip*. Chandbali is situated in an important part of Orissa and is 38 miles away from sea anchorage. It has a direct flourishing trade with Calcutta. Paradip is a new port of Orissa situated on the right bank of Mahanadi, roughly 10 miles from its old mouth on the Bay of Bengal.

Quilon—is the Coilum of Marco Polo. It is connected with Alleppy by backwater. The chief industries are cotton spinning and tile manufacture. Vessels anchor about ¾ miles from the shore and a railway siding runs up to the landing place.

Nagapattinam—is the chief port in the Tanjore District, about 17 miles south of Karikal. Numerous sailings trade between this port and Ceylon.

Kakinada—is situated on the Cocanada Bay, just north of the Godavari river, some ninety miles south of Visakhapatnam and 270 miles north of Madras. It is one of the most prosperous of minor ports of the Andhra Coast. Principal shipments are raw cotton, groundnuts, castor seeds, rice. Imports consist of kerosine, metals, etc.

Karikal—was a French settlement covering an area of 53 square miles and a sea-board of 12 miles and is almost surrounded by Tan-

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jore district. The chief traffic is rice, betelnuts, matches, fireworks and kerosene oil.

Pondicherry—is now an important port of India and is situated on the Coromandel Coast, 100 miles south of Madras. The roadstead possesses a good anchorage. Pondicherry is the centre of the export trade in groundnuts.

Bhatkal—is ideally situated to meet the needs of Mysore. A number of important industries are located in this area which is known as Nalnad area.

Malpe—is situated midway between the ports of Goa and Cochin, and is the largest fishing centre of the west coast of India. A long chain of islands known as Mary's Isles, 1½ miles in length, running parallel to the coast, serve as a sea-wall. The port has a natural harbour, free of rocks, sand-drifts and dangerous currents and is protected by nature against storms.

TRAFFIC POSITION OF THE THREE MAJOR PORTS

		Imports (tons)	*Exports (tons)*	Ships No.	*Gross tonnage*
Calcutta	1957-58	5,515,762	4,640,579	1593	10,103,581
	1958-59	5,065,327	4,133,498	1742	11,143,167
1959-60	(Sept. '59)	2,637,002	2,370,938	912	6,099,625
Bombay	1957-58	9,301,511	3,808,165	2840	15,942,044
	1958-59	8,418,327	3,333,274	2917	16,797,473
1959-60	(Sept. '59)	4,584,911	1,767,570	1372	8,901,697
Madras	1957-58	2,002,938	672,851	950	6,025,054
	1958-59	1,737,399	702,709	1092	6,989,741
1959-60	(Sept. '59)	948,927	459,231	613	3,969,521

REVENUE & EXPENDITURE OF MAJOR PORTS

		Revenue general	*Revenue pilotage*	*General expenditure*	*Pilotage expenditure*
Calcutta	1957-58	12,75,90,916	37,22,734	11,19,52,424	37,87,401
	1958-59	12,95,92,386	38,02,625	12,48,36,854	35,81,769
Bombay	1957-58	12,09,82,563	22,68,461	8,98,42,179	11,86,131
	1958-59	10,63,34,971	22,24,007	8,79,84,531	13,52,798
Madras	1957-58	2,72,28,994	6,42,941	1,97,38,776	4,55,144
	1958-59	2,19,06,957	7,36,570	3,07,93,687	5,53,504
Vizagapatam	1957-58	1,43,82,419	2,09,525	93,50,909	
	1958-59	1,37,34,504	2,24,698	1,08,71,460	
Cochin	1957-58	97,24,316	2,56,973	99,50,521	1,81,128
	1958-59	1,04,76,683	4,21,613		
Kandi	1957-58	47,17,842	81,170	35,39,085	1,25,134
	1958-59	69,02,085	1,04,729	27,93,967	2,51,920

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INDIAN PRESS

BEGINNING OF INDIAN PRESS—The Indian journalism had its first beginning when James Augustus Hickey started his *Bengal Gazette* on Jan. 29, 1780 at Serampore near Calcutta. The first journals published in this country were started in Bengal. At that time, newspapers were started mostly for the benefit of the British in India. Hickey's venture was followed by a number of others in quick succession. The most significant of these was the *John Bull in the East* in 1821, which was subsequently changed into the *Englishman.*

The development of the Indian Press, *i.e.*, National Press, was conditioned by the political stimulus that gave rise to it but it had been one long history of trials and tribulations. Indian Press had to struggle against several statutory disabilities. The conflict, which began with the notorious *Vernacular Press Act*, 1878, continued unabated. Other more drastic measures followed, such as *Newspapers Incitement to Indian States Act of 1922, Official Secrets Act of 1923, Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act of 1931, Foreign Regulations Act of 1932, Indian States (Protection) Act of 1934, etc., etc.*

During the second World War, when the relations between the British Government and the Press were considerably strained, a 'gentlemen's agreement' was concluded between the Government and the Press with the result, *Press Advisory Committee* came into being at the Centre and in many provinces. This gave the Press a consultative status. Difficulties were smoothed over by mutual consultation. This system is being still carried on and it has strengthened the foundation of a free Press in India.

With the attainment of freedom, a new era of public responsibility dawned upon the Indian Press. The disappearance of the antagonism between the people and the rulers opened a new chapter in the relationship between the Government and the Press. The supreme duty of the Press now is to educate and mould public opinion in favour of peace and harmony among the various communities in the country.

On a persistent demand from the Indian Press, the Government appointed a *Press Laws Enquiry Committee* in March, 1947 to enquire into the Press laws and recommend necessary changes in them. The Committee submitted its report in May, 1948. Among its recommendations were the repeal of certain laws like Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act of 1931 and the States (Protection) Act of 1934 and the modifications of the others. At the same time, the Committee recommended that State Governments should make the widest possible use of the Press consultative machinery and avoid any action against newspapers except after consultation with the Local Press Advisory Committee.

FREEDOM OF THE PRESS—Unlike American and some other

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Constitutions in which freedom of the Press is mentioned in terms as one of the fundamental freedoms of the citizens guaranteed by the Constitution, the Indian Constitution does not specifically mention freedom of the Press ; the fundamental rights clause of the Indian Constitution treats freedom of the Press as an aspect of the larger "freedom of expression."

Article 19 (1) of the Constitution guarantees that all citizens shall have "the right to freedom of speech and expression.' But under the Constitution (First Amendment) Act of 1951, Parliament can pass legislation reasonably restricting this right "in the interest of the security of the State, friendly relations with foreign States, public order, decency or morality or in relation to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to offence." The words "reasonable restriction" make such legislations in this behalf justifiable.

PRESS LAWS—The following are the main Acts concerning the Press in India now in operation : *The Working Journalists (Conditions of Service and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act*, which was passed in 1955 and came into force in December 1955. The Act also provides for the payment of gratuity and provident fund to working journalists and regulates the hours of work, holidays with pay, notice period for termination of service. The important provisions of the Act are—(1) appointment of Wage Boards, their composition and power, (2) an employer must give six months' notice to an editor and three months' notice to other working journalists in case of retrenchment. *Employees' Provident Funds* Act, 1952 has been extended to all newspaper establishments employing twenty working journalists or more. The Act prescribes a maximum of 144 working hours during four consecutive weeks for a journalist. It also contains provision for a weekly holiday, casual leave, earned leave and leave on medical grounds. *Prize Competition Act*, 1956 prohibiting the running of cross-word competitions in which prizes for more than Rs. 1,000 are offered, has been passed. The promoters of the competition offering prize upto Rs. 1,000 will be required to take out licences and also keep regular accounts for showing them to the licensing authority. The Act will apply to all States in India except four, namely, Punjab, Bihar, West Bengal and Kerala whose legislatures have not yet passed resolutions in favour of the Act. *The Press and Registration of Books Act of* 1817 regulates printing presses and newspapers of India, preservation of copies of books and newspapers printed in India and the registration of such books and newspapers. This Act was amended by the Amending Act of 1955 which provides for appointment of a Press Registrar with powers mainly on the side of collecting statistics and information on economic working of newspapers. The Registrar of Newspapers was appointed on July 1, 1956 with headquarters in New Delhi. The publishers of newspapers are to furnish to the Press Registrar information, statistics and returns required by him. The Press Registrar is authorised to issue certificates of registration to newspapers.

The Delivery of Books and Newspapers (Public Libraries) Act 97 of 1954 makes it obligatory for the publisher of every

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newspaper, to supply free of charge a copy of each issue of such newspaper to each of such public libraries as may be notified by the Central Government. *The Parliamentary Proceedings (Protection of Publication) Act 24 of* 1956 provides that no person shall be liable to any proceedings, civil or criminal, in respect of publication in a newspaper or by means of wireless telegraphy, of a substantially true report of any proceedings of either House of Parliament, unless the publication is proved to have been made with malice. *The Drugs and Magic Remedies (Objectionable Advertisements) Act* 21 of 1954 provides to control the advertisement of drugs in certain cases, to prohibit the advertisement for certain purposes of remedies alleged to possess magic qualities and the matters connected with them. *The Copyright Act* 14 of 1957 amends and consolidates the law relating to copyright in India. *Newspaper (Price and Page) Act 45 of* 1954 empowers Government to issue a price-page schedule from time to time by making an order providing for the regulation of the prices charged for newspapers in relation to their maximum or minimum number of pages, sizes or areas and for the space to be allotted for advertising matter in relation to other matters. *The Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946* has been extended to all newspaper establishments with 20 or more working journalists. *The Industrial Disputes Act,* 1955, has been repealed and its provisions have been incorporated in this Act.

PRICE-PAGE SCHEDULE—The Government of India issued a Price and Page Order for daily newspapers on October, 1960. The order provides in relation to the prices charged by daily newspapers that they may issue. In the case of editions published as weekly editions on one day in the week and also in regard to a specified number of special supplements during the year on important occasions, a large number of pages has been allowed. To provide reasonable flexibility, provision has been made for additional pages upto 6 in a week to make up adjustments for varying fall of news on different days of the week.

DEFINITION OF A NEWSPAPER—There is a conflict of opinion as to the definition of newspaper according to Indian Post Office Act, and Press and Registration of Books Act. The Press and Registration of Books Act of 1867 says, "Newspapers means any printed periodical work containing public news or comments on public news," whereas according to Indian Post Office Act newspaper is as every publication, consisting wholly or in great part of political or other news or of articles relating thereto or to other current copies with or without advertisements, shall be deemed a newspaper subject to the following conditions, namely—(a) that it is published in numbers at internals of not more than 31 days, (b) that it has a *book fide* list of subscribers.

In view of this two conflicting opinions, it was decided to introduce a special concessional postal rate for periodicals which did not strictly conform to the definition of 'newspaper' as given in the Indian Post Office Act. So under the new notification issued by the Posts

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and Telegraphs Department all periodicals under valid declaration which do not come within the purview of the definition of 'newspaper' as given in the Post Office Act are now transmitted by the Post Offices at the rate of 8 nP upto 10 tolas and 3 nP. for every additional 5 tolas. This was however subject to the condition that the periodical in question, was registered with the Registrar of Newspapers and bore in print in any convenient place, either on the first or last page thereof, the supercription "Registered with the Registrar of Newspapers for India under No—."

CHAINS, GROUPS AND MULTIPLE UNITS OF NEWSPAPERS—The Registrar of Newspapers in India has divided the newspapers in above three classes as follows—

Chains—more than one newspaper under common ownership from more than one centre.

Groups—more than one newspaper under common ownership from the same centre.

Multiple Units—more than one newspaper of the same title language and periodicity under common ownership from different places.

In 1959 there were in India 19 chains, 162 groups and 30 multiple units. These entire combinations controlled 607 newspapers.

Of course, the most prominent from of ownership during 1959 was individual ownership accounting 45.1 p.c. of the total newspapers in India.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS—The newspapers have been broadly divided into two categories, namely, *General Interest Newspapers* and *Periodicals*. According to UNESCO definition, a 'General Interest Newspaper' is any periodical publication, put on sale to the general public which serves as an initial source of written news of current events in the field of public affairs, politics, government etc. The term 'initial source' is used in order to exclude periodicals such as weekly news magazines whose function is to select, summarise or comment on events which have been already reported in newspapers.

UNESCO also defines 'periodical' as a publication which appears under the same title at regular intervals but more than once a year and whose contents vary widely ranging from information of a general nature to trade, technical and professional subjects. UNESCO definition covers all periodicals published weekly or at longer intervals except annuals.

NEWSPAPERS & PERIODICALS IN INDIA—On December 31, 1959, there were 7,651 newspapers (including periodicals) in the country as compared to 6,918 in 1958 and 5,932 in 1957. This shows an increase of 2.9 p.c. in the number of newspapers in two years. Those daily papers which already commanded a circulation above 50,000 in 1958 registered further increase during 1959. There were five dailies in 1959 whose circulation was above one lakh. There were nine English dailies, two dailies each in Hindi, Tamil, Bengali and Malayalam and one in Marathi which had a circulation above 50,000.

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Highest circulation was commanded by English dailies with Hindi dailies coming next and Tamil third. The largest number of newspapers continued to be published in English (20.3 p.c.), Hindi coming next with 18.8 p.c. Urdu, Gujerati, Bengali and Marathi claim 8.2 p.c. 6.6 p.c. and 5.3 p.c. respectively. Among the different languages, the highest number (278) of newspapers was claimed by Hindi followed by English (238).

INDIAN NEWS AGENCIES—So far as the Indian news is concerned, *Associated Press of India*, started by the late Mr. K.C. Roy, was the pioneer in the field. Afterwards it became a Reuter-subsidiary company. But in August 1947 Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society and Reuter came to a settlement by which a successor news agency was formed called *Press Trust of India* in the place of Associated Press of India. The Press Trust of India entered Reuter's world set-up as a partner, paying for its qualifying shares with a seat on Reuter's Board. P.T.I. is represented in Reuter by a Trustee and a Director and is a party to the Reuter Trust. P.T.I. is a public non-profit-sharing company.

Near and Far East News (*Asia*) was started on April 31, 1952. NAFEN issues news bulletins in English and in almost all Indian languages from its four centres.

There are other minor news agencies in India but their fields are restricted ; the most important among them being *Dhiman Press of India* started in 1935, which has its headquarters in Ludhiana. It supplies news, news-photos and features from all over the world to more than 100 dailies and weeklies in India. Another newly started news agency is the *Hindustan Samachar Ltd.*, which commenced its work in 1948.

Free Press of India was founded in 1923 but it was suspended in 1935. The Agency again commenced business in 1945. But its news service is mainly confined to Free Press group of papers at Bombay.

Foreign Agencies—The Foreign News Agencies comprise—*Reuters, Associated Press of America, Agence France Pressee, Tass News Agency, Central News Agency*, International News Service of United States, United Press of America and others. Some Foreign News Agencies supply world news to Indian papers and send Indian news to their clients abroad. In addition to these, there are Press correspondents for individual papers.

PRESS COMMISSION'S REPORT—The Indian Press Commission, issued its report on the 26th July, 1954. The main recommendations are as follows—

(1) *All India Press-Council* should be set up to ensure a high standard of journalism and to censure persons guilty of unethical conduct. The council will also be responsible for fostering the development of the Press and protecting it from external pressure. The functions of the proposed Council will be mainly to safeguard freedom of the Press and to build up a code of journalism by censuring objectionalble types of journalistic conduct and by other means. Another function will be to improve methods of recruitment and training by certain suitable agencies, such as, Press Institute.

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(2) There should be more than one news agency functioning efficiently. News agencies should not be State-owned or State-controlled.

(3) *Working Journalists*—The definition of the word "employee" in the Industrial Disputes Act should be extended to include within its purview working journalists as well as employees on the managerial side. Alternatively a provision may be made in the proposed Newspapers and Periodicals Act making the new industrial relations legislation applicable to newspaper employees. Provisions regarding notice period, bonus, minimum wages, leave, provident fund and gratuity should also be embodied in the same legislation. Journalists should be given a minimum basic wages of Rs. 125 per month and dearness allowance. They should be entitled to provident fund, different kinds of leave and a gratuity on the basis of 15 days' pay for every year of service.

(4) A State Trading Corporation should be set up to import all newsprint. It should take over the entire output of Indian mills also and sell it along with imported newsprint at equated price.

(5) A price-page schedule for newspapers should be introduced and advertisement should not cover more than 40 p.c. of the space in a newspaper.

(6) The tendency towards the concentration in the ownership of the newspapers is an unhealthy trend and should be discouraged.

(7) Whenever possible, every paper should be constituted as a separate unit, so that its profits and losses can be definitely ascertained. In the case of multiple editions, separate cost accounts should be kept in respect of each.

(8) Appointment of a Press Registrar who should be responsible for the compilation of facts and figures relating to the newspaper industry. It should be made incumbent on each newspaper and periodical to file certain returns with the Registrar.

NEWSPAPER ASSOCIATIONS—There are at present four All-India main bodies in India which seek to promote the welfare of Indian newspapers—(1) *Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society* started in February 1939, the objects of which are as follows: (*a*) to act as a central organisation of the Press of India, Burma and Ceylon, (*b*) to promote and safeguard the business interests of members as affected by the action of Legislatures, Governments, the Law Courts, municipal and local bodies and associations or organisations, etc., (*c*) to collect information upon all topics having a practical interest for members and to communicate the same to them, (*d*) to promote co-operation in all matters affecting the common interests of members, (*e*) to hold periodical conferences of its members to discuss and determine act on matters of common interests, (*f*) to make rules to govern the conduct of its members in specified matters, to provide penalties for the infringement thereof, and to provide means of determining whether there has been such infringement, (*g*) to maintain a permanent Secretariat in India, which should watch over the interesis of members, (*h*) to do all such other things as may be conductive to the attainment of the aforesaid objects.

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(2) *All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference* was started in 1940. Its constitution is as follows : (*a*) to preserve the high traditions and standard of journalism, (*b*) to serve and safeguard fair comment, (*c*) to secure all facilities and privileges to the Press for the due discharge of its responsibilities, (*d*) to represent the interests of the Press in regard to the publication of news and Press in India in its relations with public and public institutions and, particularly in its relations with Government, to set up Committees that wouls act as liaison between the Government and the Press as a whole, (*e*) to establish and develop contacts with Associations with similar objects in other countries. The A.I.N.E.C. is primarily concerned with the editorial side of the newspapers, while Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society and Indian Language Newspapers' Association are concerned with the business aspects of the newspaper industry.

Another Association has also been started known as (3) *Indian Languages Newspapers' Association* (established in 1941) for the welfare of newspapers in Indian languages. It is the only organisation in India representing the interests of small newspapers, periodicals and magazines.

(4) *Indian Federation of Working Journalists* came into being on October, 1950. At present there are 22 units affiliated to the Federation. It is the organisation of the employees.

Audit Bureau of Circulations (A.B.C.)—This Bureau was established 10 years ago. The chief work of the Bureau is to collect all information about the newspaper circulation and to give a certificate of approved number of newspaper circulation. The membership of the Bureau in 1948 was 294.

Commonwealth Press Union—This Union was originally known as Empire Press Union. It is a body of newspaper proprietors from Commonwealth countries with headquarters in London and Sections in the Commonwealth countries. Its aims are to promote the welfare of the Commonwealth Press by all possible and legitimate means, to defend the privileges and freedom of the Press and to promote conferences in various Commonwealth countries.

INFORMATION AND PUBLICITY OF THE CENTRAL AND STATE GOVERNMENTS—The Indian Government Publicity work is carried on chiefly through the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. This Ministry is responsible for the following functions—(1) *All India Radio*, (2) *Press Information Bureau*, (3) *Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity*, (4) *Publications Division*, (5) *Films Division*, (6) *Research and Reference Division*, (7) *Registrar of Newspapers for India*, (8) *Five-Year Plan Publicity*.

There is not only Press Information Bureau under the Information Officers attached to each Central Ministry, Public Relations Officers, or Press Attaches attached to Indian Embassies and consular establishments abroad and Public Relations Officers for Railways and other governmental agencies, but there are also Information Ministers in the States controlling information departments under the Directors of Publicity.

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INFORMATION SERVICES

Press Information Bureau—provides information service to Indian and foreign Press on the activities of the Government of India. It acts as a link between the Government and the Press and it also keeps Government informed of the views and comments in the Press on Government policies and actions. Some of the activities of the Press Information Bureau are as follows—

Accredited Correspondents—There are at Delhi, representing Indian and foreign newspapers, 165 correspondents accredited to the Government of India, to whom the Press Information Bureau extends facility for collection of information.

Foreign Journalists—Facilities are extended to visiting foreign correspondents, editors, columnists, photographers, news-reel and documentary cameramen, broadcasters and television producers.

Foreign Visitors—Officers of the Bureau are attached to the parties of visiting dignitaries to assist journalists accompanying them and to co-ordinate arrangements for publicity through different media.

Services in Indian Languages—For the release of services in different languages, there are regional offices and distribution centres in Delhi (Hindi & Urdu), Bombay (Marathi & Gujarati), Madras (Tamil & Telugu), Bangalore (Kannada), Ernakulam (Malayalam), Calcutta (Bengali), Gauhati (Assamese), Cuttack (Oriya), Nagpur (Marathi), Lucknow, Patna and Varanasi (Hindi), Jullundur (Punjabi), Jaipur (Hindi).

Feature Services—Programme of feature services includes illustrations and texts. Illustrated features are issued on special occasions, such as Handicrafts Week, Republic Day, etc.

Distribution of Materials—Blue Books and other Government publications are distributed to newspapers for their record and reference. Newspapers are assisted to bring out special supplements on occasions of national or international importance.

Press Tours—are organised by the Bureau to various regions and development projects to provide an opportunity to journalists to form their own impressions of the progress made in implementing various projects under the Plan.

Photographic Services—Prints of news and feature photographs are distributed to newspapers. A new photo service '*In the news*' interpreting current events through photographs with adequate details and background information, has been introduced for the benefit of second-line papers which cannot get spot news photographs in time. There is a Photo Library which maintains albums of classified photographs.

Ebonoid Service—Twice a month, subjects of cultural and developmental interest are issued in the form of plastic ebonoid blocks to help the second-line newspapers and periodicals which are unable to provide their own blocks.

Panel Service—A regular supply is also made of photographs in the larger exhibition size for display in Information Centres.

Services for Official Information—Clippings are supplied daily to the Ministries on subjects in which they are interested.

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Information Centres—The Bureau has information centres at New Delhi, Jallundur, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Srinagar, Lucknow, Patna, Hyderabad, Trivandrum, Rajkot, Nagpur, Bhopal, Bhubaneshwar, Jaipur, Hirakud, Nangal.

Publications Division—This Division of the Government of India is responsible for the production, sale and distribution of popular pamphlets, books, magazines, etc., which provide the general public at home and abroad with true information about the people and their culture, places of tourist information, and the progress of the various development programmes in the country. This publicity is undertaken in English, Hindi and regional languages. The Division also gives advice to the Ministries and the departments of the Government on the preparations and productions of publicity literature.

Magazines—The Division continues to publish 20 magazines including three A.I.R. programme journals. The folowing are the periodicals published by the Division—(1) *A.I.R. Selections*; (2) *Prasarika*. These two contain important radio talks. (3) *Social Welfare*; (4) *India—A Reference Annual* (yearly); (5) *March of India*—English bi-monthly for external publicity; (6) *Ajkal*, a monthly published in Hindi and Urdu, which seeks to promote better understanding between the various cultural regions of the country; (7) *Bal Bharati*, a Hindi monthly journal for children; (8) *Kurukshetra*, the monthly journal for Community Projects Administration; (9) *Indian Information*; (10) *Yojana*; (11) *Metric Measures*; (12) *Indian Information*; (13) *Traveller in India*.

Books and Publications—Books, pamphlets, etc., both for general publicity and publicity for the Five-Year Plans, are released in English, Hindi and the regional languages. Some of the recent publications are : Speeches of Jawaharlal Nehru, Dr. Rajendra Prasad and Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, etc. *Museums and Art gallaries, Kashmir, Contemporary Indian Painters, Women of India, the Way of the Buddha, Literatures in modern Indian Languages, Nuclear Explosions and their effects, Maulana Azad—A Homage, Great Rising of 1857, Facts about India, 2,500 years of Buddhsm.*

Photo and Art Sections—The Division has these two Sections. The Art Section is responsible for the designs, illustrations, maps, charts, pictographs, lay-outs, etc., required for the publications produced and issued by the Division. The Photo Section covers local and outstation assignments. The Section supplies prints to various Ministries.

Distribution Section—This Section handles copies of various publications for sale and free distribution. It also sets up stalls at important conferences and occasions.

Tourist Publicity—Publications of tourist interest are released every year, such as *Handbook of India, Guide Books on Madhya Pradesh, Kulu and Kangra, Gwalior, Mandu*, etc.

Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity—functions as the Central Organisation of the Government of India for the execution of its advertising and visual publicity requirements. It is responsible for the planning, productions and release of display advertisements

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to newspapers and periodicals. In the sphere of visual and outdoor publicity, it utilizes various media like posters, folders, broadsheets, pamphlets, brochures, calendars, hoardings, neon signs, display panels, cinema slides, models, charts and organises exhibitions.

1. *Press Advertising*—With a view to ensuring maximum coverage of people from all walks of life, Government carries *press advertisements* to 51 newspapers and periodicals. This does not include the number of special souvenirs, telephone directories, annuals, etc.

2. *Visual Publicity*—has been increasing in importance and utility every year. Major publicity campaigns are carried on Five-year Plans, Small Saving Schemes, Tourism, Family Planning, Handloom and Handicraft products, Metric system of weights, etc., with folders, posters, handbills etc.

3. *Diaries and Calenders*—The prestige and utility diaries are produced by the Directorate every year. For *outdoor publicity* attractive metallic plates are being put up in railway coaches.

4. *Exhibitions*—There is an Exhibition Division of the Directorate which takes part in all important exhibitions of the country. It also prepares and supplies models, photographs, maps, etc., for display at the tourist offices in India and abroad.

5. *Distribution*—There is a Distribution Branch of the Directorate which directly despatches the material to various addressess right upto the village level.

Directorate of Field Publicity—The Field Publicity Organisation was established in 1953 as a part of the integrated publicity programme of Five-year Plans. Its activities are directed in publishing the Plans among the people and creating the necessary enthusiasm for their successful fulfilment. Field publicity mobile units are the chief means of this kind of publicity campaign, which arranges film shows, public meetings, seminars, discussion groups, etc.

Research and Reference Division—The main function of this Division is to furnish reference material and background notes for publicity purposes to the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting and the various media units under it. So the functions can be classified like these—(1) to undertake basic research on matters of publicity, (2) to build up an indexed reference compendium of current events, (3) to compile a Year Book to give a comprehensive picture of the activities of the Central and State Governments.

The main works of the Division are—(1) *Production of 'India—A Reference Annual'* (2) *Background to the News*—a bi-weekly service which embodies background references to selected news items of current and lasting interest. (3) *Indexing and Documentation* of news items, national and international (4) *Library*—Division is building up a reference library.

Films Division—The Films Division is responsible for the production and distribution of documentary films, cartoons and newsreels. Films Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting with its headquarters, is at 91, Welkessyar Road, Bombay. The Division is divided into four main departments as under—(*i*) *Production Department* which has Documentary Section and Newsreel Section

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(*ii*) *Distribution Department* (*iii*) *Publicity Department* (*iv*) *Administration Department.*

There is also the Central Board of Film Censors which works as a single censoring authority for certification of films for the whole of India.

The Films Division produces, on an average, one newsreel a week and about 42 documentaries a year. All the films for internal circulations are produced in five languages—Hindi, Bengali, Tamil, Telugu and English. By arrangements with some foreign newsreel companies, facilities have been made available for the exhibition of important Indian newsreels abroad. The distribution of films is carried out by five branch centres at Bombay, Calcutta, Nagpur, Lucknow and Madras.

Registrar of Newspapers for India—The office of the Registrar of Newspapers for India was set up on July 1, 1956 in pursuance of the recommendations of the Press Commission. The Press Registrar is the statutory authority for the collection of statistics regarding the Press in the country under the *Press and Registration of Books* (*Amendment Act, 1955*). Under the Press Registrar, a central agency has been created to maintain a Register of newspapers containing prescribed particulars about every newspaper in India as well as information about ownership and statistics about their circulation.

FOREIGN INFORMATION SERVICES

U. N. Information Centre—21 Curzon Road, New Delhi, disseminates information of the activities of the United Nations to Indian people.

U. S. Information Services—Offices at New Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Hyderabad, Bangalore, Trivandrum.

British Information Services—Office New Delhi; Branches at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

FAO Information Centre—has been estabished for dissemination of useful information resulting from the work of the Food and Agriculture Organisation of United Nations. Theatre Communication Building, New Delhi. It covers Ceylon, India, Indonesia and Nepal.

WHO Public Information Unit—The office for South-East Asia is at Patiala House, Hardinge Avenue, New Delhi. It covers the area of Burma, Ceylon, Indonesia and Thailand. The unit issues press releases, pamphlets, features, photographs, etc. concerning the activities of WHO.

Dominion of Canada—4 Aurangzeb Road, New Delhi.

Australia—Australian High Commissoin, Connaught Place, New Delhi.

PRESS ASSOCIATIONS

Bombay Union of Journalists, Bombay.

Ind. Journalists' Association, 249B, Bowbazar Street, Cal-12.

Ahmedabad Journalists' Association, Ahmedabad.

Southern India Journalists' Federation, Sri Rama Buildings, 5-6, Mount Road, Madras-2.

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Assam Journalists' Association, Gauhati.
Indian Newspapers' .Co-operative Society Ltd., Janmabhoomi Bhavan, Ghoga Street, Fort, Bombay.
Foreign Correspondents' Association, New Delhi.
Press Association, New Delhi.
Press Owners' Association, Bombay.
Kerala Newspaper Editors' Association.
Marathi Journalists' Conference, Poona.
U. P. Journalists' Union, Lucknow.
Delhi Union of Journalists, Delhi.
M.P. Union of Journalists, Nagpur.
Federation of Indian Working Journalists.
Bihar Journalists' Association, Patna.
The Press Club (Reporters' Club), Calcutta.
Press Owners' Association, Calcutta.
Tra-Cochin Journalsits' Association.

JOURNALISM COURSES IN INDIA

University of Madras—Post-Graduate Course in Journalism is conducted by the University.
Calcutta University—two-year diploma course.
University of Mysore—Journalism course is included as one of the optional subjects for the B.A. degree of the University and is taught at the Maharaja's College, Mysore.
Hilsop College, Nagpur—Diploma and Certificate Course, each for one year's duration.
Punjab University—maintains a University Journalism Department at Camp College, New Delhi, for a post-graduate course for diploma of journalism.
"Hindu" of Madras scholarship for journalism—one candidate is taken each year for all-round training.
Gujarat University—A journalism course introduced in the University, but no College has been started.
Osmania University—conducts two courses for Diploma of journalism for graduates and certificates of proficiency in journalism for matriculates.

INDIAN NEWS AGENCIES

Press Trust of India (P.T.I.), Bombay.
Dhiman Press of India, Ludhiana, (Punjab).
Rao's Press Features, Bangalore.
Hindustan Samachar, 29, Ghoga St., Bombay.
Press News Features, New Delhi.
Associated News Service, Troop Bazar, Hyderabad.

FOREIGN NEWS AGENCIES IN INDIA

British—Reuters, Associated Press.
France—Agence France Presse.
U.S.S.R.—Tass.
U. S. A.—Associated Press of America.
—United Press of America.
International News Service—United Press Associations Ltd.

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China—Hsin Hua (New China News Agency, Peking).
Japan—Kyodo News Agency (Tokyo); Jiji News Agency (Tokyo).
Pakistan—Associated Press of Pakistan; United Press of Pakistan.
Afghanistan—Bakhtar (Kabul).
NAFEN—Near and Far East News (Asia) Ltd.—7, Fancy Lane, Calcutta.

LEADING DALIES IN INDIA
(*Circulation over* 50,000 *in* 1959)

Indian Express (*Eng.*) Delhi, Bom. Madurai & Vijayawada	1,79,768	Navbharat Times (*Hindi*) Delhi & Bom.	79,891
Times of India (*Eng.*) Bom. & Delhi	1,39,265	Malayala Manorama (*Malayalam*) Kottayam	75,548
Thanthi (*Tamil*) Mad., Madurai & Trichur	1,31,034	Loksatta (*Marathi*) Bom.	73,826
Hindu (*Eng.*) Madras	1,10,973	Hindusthan Times (*English*) Delhi	70,519
Statesman (*Eng.*) Cal. and Delhi	97,589	Mathrubhumi (*Malayalam*) Kozhikode	69,952
Free Press Journal (*English*) Bombay	87,962	Dinamani (*Tamil*) Madurai	65,323
Amrita Bazar Patrika (*English*) Calcutta	86,721	Hindusthan (*Hindi*) Delhi	51,785
Ananda Bazar Patrika (*Bengali*) Calcutta	84,035	Sunday Standard (*Eng.*) Sunday paper, Bombay Vijayawada, Madurai, Delhi	1,82,965
Jugantar (*Bengali*) Cal.	80,401	Bharat Jyoti (*Eng.*) Sunday paper, Bombay	54,657

LEADING WEEKLIES IN INDIA
(*Circulation over* 50,000 *in* 1959)

Anandavikatan, Tamil, Madras	1,58,132	Illustrated Weekly, Eng. Bombay	71,158
Kalki, Tamil, Madras	1,03,688	Dharam jug, Hindi, Bom.	64,194
Blitz, English, Bombay	87,186	Cine Advance, Eng. Cal.	55,200
Malayala Manorama, Malayalam, Kottayam	78,347	Mathrubhumi, Malayalam, Kozhikode	53,832
Cine Chitra, Hindi, Cal.	77,500	Weekly News & Views, English, Calcutta	53,343
Screen, English, Bom. & Vijayawada	73,094		

OTHER PERIODICALS IN INDIA
(*Circulation over* 50,000 *in* 1959)

Kumudam Tamil, Trimonthly, Madras	1,67,136	Astana, Urdu Monthly, Delhi	77,967
Kalyan, Hindi, Monthly, Gorakhpur	1,14,949	Manohar Kahaniya, Hindi Monthly, Allahabad	66,332
Filmfare, English, Fortnightly, Bombay	1,06,570	Rashtrapati, Hindi Fortnightly, Delhi	63,636

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Maya, Hindi Monthly, Allahabad	62,750
Padi Pantalu, Telugu Monthly Hyderabad	61,397
Chandamama, Hindi Monthly, Madras	57,577
Shama, Urdu Monthly, Delhi	57,166
Pesum Padam, Tamil Monthly, Madras	54,217
Betar Jagat, Bengali Fortnightly, Calcutta	50,432

REGIONAL PAPERS IN INDIA
(*Circulation in* 1959)

Tamil Dailies	
Swadesamitran, Madras	42,523
Nava India, Madras & Coimbatore	30,789
Tamil Nadu, Madras	25,522
Thani Arasu, Madras	20,055
Tamil Periodicals	
Malai Mani, Weekly, Madras	37,231
Kalkandu, Weekly, Madras	30,848
Engal Nadu, Weekly, Madras	22,990
Nathigam, Weekly, Madras	22,000
Bharatham, Bi-weekly, Madras	20,620
Amritam, Fortnightly, Madras	33,121
Vanoli, Fortnightly, Madras	29,085
Tamil Cinema, Fortnightly, Madras	28,820
Kalai Poonga, Fortnightly, Madras	26,333
Kalai Vanen, Fortnightly, Madras	26,250
Cinema Times, Fortnightly, Madras	22,634
Chiranjavi, Monthly, Madras	45,000
Kalai Mangal, Monthly, Madras	37,416
Pudumai, Monthly, Madras	36,501
Cinema Kadir, Monthly, Madras	32,289
Gangai, Monthly, Madras	31,216
Kalai, Monthly, Madras	30,622
Naikaruna Veeran, Monthly, Madras	28,000
Janayugam, Monthly, Madras	25,000
Mezhichelvam, Monthly, Madras	21,101
Telugu Dailies	
Andhra Patrika, Madras	41,086
Telugu Periodicals	
Andhra Prabha, Weekly, Vijayawada	56,108
Andhra Patrika, Weekly	45,483
Chandamama, Monthly, Madras ..	30,706
Kannada Dailies	
Samyukta Karnataka, Hubli & Bangalore	31,644
Prajavani, Bangalore	30,145
Kannada Periodicals	
Chandamama, Monthly, Madras	21,951
Bengali Dailies	
Basumati	20,753
Bengali Periodicals	
Desh, Weekly, Calcutta	31,484
Suktara, Monthly, Calcutta	24,166
Assamese Periodicals	
Assam Bani, Weekly, Gauhati	22,760
Malayalam Dailies	
Kerala Dhawani, Kottayam	22,749
Deepika, Kottayam	22,236
Jana Yugam, Quilion	21,916
Gujarati Dailies	
Bombay Samachar, Bom.	34,710
Gujarat Samachar, Ahmedabad	32,756
Janasatta, Ahmedabad	29,358
Sandesh, Ahmedabad	28,158
Jai Hind, Rajkot	23,675
Praja Tantra, Bom.	23,493

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Janmabhoomi, Bombay	21,404	Tarun Bharat, Nagpur & Poona	22,624
Gujarati Periodicals		Lokmittra, Bombay	20,204
Janmabhoomi Pravasi, Weekly	47,146	*Periodicals*	
Lokraj, Weekly, Bombay	41,566	Lokrajya, Weekly, Bom.	41,566
Zagmag, Weekly, Ahmedabad	29,192	Swarajya, Weekly, Poona	31,260
Akhand Anand, Monthly, Ahmedabad	33,821	Keshari, Tri-weekly Poona	27,151
Jan Kalyan, Monthly, Ahmedabad	30,458	Chandoba, Monthly, Madras	35,547
Marathi Dailies		*Urdu Dailies*	
Sakal, Poona	47,526	Milap, Delhi, Jullundar & Hyderabad	35,086
Maratha, Bombay	35,350	Pratap, Jullundur & Delhi	31,359
Nava Sakti, Bombay	27,968		

NO. OF FILM PAPERS IN INDIA

English ..	.. 38	Urdu ..	.. 20
Tamil ..	.. 33	Bengali	.. 20
Hindi ..	.. 31	Telugu ..	.. 14

DAILIES & PERIODICALS IN 1959

(*Circulation between* 20,000 *to* 50,000)

English Dailies		*Hindi Daily*	
Mail, Madras	42,599	Vishwamitra, Calcutta	39,300
Hindustan Standard, Cal.	40,007	Jagaran, Indore, Rewa, Bhopal	27,388
Kerala Kaumudi, Trivandrum (Eng. & Malayalam)	34,115	Aryavarta, Patna	26,850
Tribune, Ambala	28,687	Nava Bharat, Jabalpur, Bhopal, Nagpur	21,261
Deccan Herald, Bangalore	25,263	Nava Prabhat, Indore, Ujyain, Gwalior, Bhopal, Gaya	24,668
Indian Nation, Patna	21,330	*Hindi Periodicals*	
English Periodicals		Lokrajya, Weekly, Bom.	41,566
People's Raj, Weekly Bom.	41,566	Chitra Bharati, Weekly, Calcutta	39,041
Sports & Pastime, Weekly Madras	27,154	Parag, Monthly, Bom.	44,162
Eve's Weekly, Bombay	22,279	Siksha Sandesh, Monthly, Baraut	39,999
Tamil Nad Times, Fortnightly, Madras	27,298	Chitra Bharati, Monthly, Calcutta	38,332
Bhavan's Journal, Fortnightly, Bom.	26,839	Jeevan Siksha, Monthly, Varanasi	35,249
Femina, Fortnightly, Bombay	23,389	Dharti-Ke-Lal, Monthly, Delhi	35,000
Journal of the Ind. Medical Asso. Calcutta	21,322	Hindi Pracharak, Monthly, Varanasi	34,200
Journal of the Institution of Engineers, Calcutta	27,544		
Careers & Courses, Monhly, Delhi	27,531		

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Manorama, Monthly, Allahabad	28,791	Navneet Hindi Digest, Bombay	22,558
Drama & Film, Monthly, Delhi	27,333	Chunumunu, Monthly, Patna	21,792
Rang Bhoomi, Monthly, Delhi	26,438	Nav Chitrapat, Monthly, Delhi	21,065
Sarita, Monthly, Delhi	26,166	Rashbheri, Monthly, Delhi	20,666
Kahani, Monthly, Allahabad	24,924	Rekha, Monthly Nagpur	20,188

LANGUAGE-WISE CIRCULATION, 1959

	Lakhs	*p.c.*		*Lakhs*	*p.c.*
English	29.97	23.2	Urdu	10.47	6.0
Hindi	35.53	20.6	Bengali	9.23	6.0
Tamil	21.25	12.3	Malayalam	8.01	4.7
Gujrati	11.59	6.7	Telegu	6.63	3.8
Marathi	10.54	6.1			

NUMBER (P.C.) OF NEWSPAPERS BY LANGUAGES, 1959

	p.c.		*p.c.*
English	20.3	Gujrati	6.9
Hindi	18.8	Bengali	6.6
Urdu	8.2	Marathi	5.3

NUMBER OF NEWSPAPERS (INCLUDING PERIODICALS) IN INDIA 1959

1957	5,932	1959	7,651
1958	6,918	*Increase in two years* ..	29 P.C.

LANGUAGE-WISE CIRCULATION INCREASE OF NEWSPAPERS IN 1959

	p.c.		*p.c.*
Assamese	26.8	Bengali	10.3
Tamil	18.3	Malayalam	9.3
Marathi ..	16.3	English	9.0
Punjabi	15.4	Gujrati	7.7
Hindi	11.8	Oriya	7.4
Telegu	10.6	Urgu	6.9
		Kannada	5.2

TOTAL CIRCULATION OF NEWSPAPERS & PERIODICALS

Dailies	lakhs	*Fortnightlies*	lakhs
1958	38.54	1958	14.69
1959	43.61	1959	17.08
Monthlies	lakhs	*Quarterlies&*	
1958	52.98	*Half yearlies*	lakhs
1959	56.22	1958	6.22
Weeklies	lakhs	1959	7.23
1958	36.20	*Annuals*	lakhs
1959	41.94	1958 ..	2.16
		1959	2.19

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STATEWISE DISTRIBUTION OF NEWSPAPERS 1959

Andhra Pradesh	350	Punjab	567
Assam	56	Rajasthan	239
Bihar	168	Uttar Pradesh	915
Bombay	1,685	West Bengal	1,063
Kerala	319	Delhi	744
Madhya Pradesh	240	Himachal Pradesh	5
Madras	757	Manipur	26
Mysore	345	Tripura	12
Orissa	141	Andamans & Nicobars	1

* All the figures above are taken from the Report of the Registrar of Newspapers of India 1959.

SPORTS SECTION

INDIAN CRICKET

Foreign Teams in India

G. F. Vernon's Team—(1889-90). Played 12 ; won 10 ; lost 1 and drawn 1. Captain—G. F. Vernon.

Lord Hawke's Team—(1892-93). Played 23 ; won 15; lost 2 and drawn 6. Captain—Lord Hawke.

Oxford University Authentics—(1902-3). Played 19 ; won 12 ; lost 2 and drawn 5. Captain—K. J. Key.

M. C. C. Official Team—(1925-26). Played 34 ; won 11 ; drawn 23 and lost none. Captain—A. E. R. Gilligan.

All-Ceylon Team (1932-33)—Played 10 ; won 2 ; lost 1 ; drawn 7. Captain—Dr. C. H. Gunasekara.

M. C. C. Team (1933-34)—Played 34 ; won 17 ; drawn 16 and lost 1. Captain—D. R. Jardine.

Australian Team (Unofficial 1935-36)—Played 23 ; won 11 ; lost 3 ; drawn 9. Captain—J. Ryder.

Lord Tennyson's Team (1937-38)—Played 24 ; won 8, lost 5 and drawn 11. Captain—Lord Tennyson.

Second All-Ceylon Team (1940-41)—Played 5 ; won 1 ; lost 1 ; drawn 3. Captain—S. S. Jayawikrama.

Australian Services XI (1945-46)—Played 9 ; won 1 ; lost 2 ; drawn 6. Captain—A. L. Hasset.

West Indies Team (1948-49)—Played 17 won 5 ; lost 1 ; drawn 11. Captain—John Goddard.

1st Commonwealth Team (1949-50)—Played 19 ; won 8 ; lost 2 ; drawn 9. Captain—L. Livingstone.

2nd Commonwealth Team (1950-51)—Played 25 ; drawn 13 ; won 12 ; played 5 unofficial Test matches, won 2, drawn 3. Captain—L. E. G. Ames.

M.C.C. Team (1951-52)—Played 18 ; won 7 ; lost 1 ; drawn 10 ; Test match played 5 ; won 1 ; lost 1 ; drawn 3. Captain—N. D. Howard.

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Pakistan Team (1952)—Played 12 ; won 1 ; lost 2 ; drawn 9. Captain—A. H. Kardar.

Silver Jubilee Overseas Cricketers' Team (1953-54)—Played 21 ; won 3 ; lost 5 and drawn 13.

New Zealand Team (1955-56)—Played 10 ; won 2 ; lost 3 ; drawn 5.

Australian Team (1956)—played 3 ; won 2 ; lost 0 ; drawn 1.

Silver Jubilee O. C. Eleven (1957)—played 2 ; won 1 ; lost 1 ; First match against Dr. Roy's eleven at Calcutta lost and 2nd against C. C. of India at Bombay won.

West Indies Team (1958-59)—played 17, won 9, drawn 8.

Australian Team 1959-60—played 5, won 2, lost 1, drawn 1.

Indian Teams Abroad

First Parsi Team in England (1886)—Played 28 ; won 1 ; lost 19; drawn 8. Captain—Patel.

Second Parsi Team (1888)—Played 31 ; won 8 ; lost 11 ; drawn 12. Captain—P. D. Kanoa.

Maharaja of Patiala's Team in England (1911)—Played 23 ; won 6 ; lost 15 ; drawn 2. Captain—Maharaja of Patiala.

All India Team in England (1932)—Played 36 ; won 13 ; lost 9 ; drawn 14. Captain—Maharaja of Porbandar.

All India Team in England (1936)—Played 31 ; won 5 ; lost 13 ; drawn 13. Captain—Maharajakumar of Vijianagram.

All India Team in Ceylon (1945)—Played 5 ; won 2 ; lost 0 ; drawn 3. Captain—V. M. Merchant.

All India Team in England (1946)—Played 33 ; won 13 ; lost 4 ; drawn 16. Captain—Nawab of Pataudi.

All India Team in Australia (1947-48)—Played 19 ; won 4 ; lost 7 ; drawn 8. Captain—Lala Amarnath.

All India Team in England (1952)—Played 38 ; won 6 ; lost 8 ; drawn 24; Test match played 4 ; won 0 ; lost 3 ; drawn 1. Captain—V. S. Hazare.

All India Team in West Indies (1953)—Played 11 ; lost 1 ; won 1 ; drawn 9. Captain—V. S. Hazare.

All India Team in Pakistan (1954-55)—Played 14; won 5: drawn 9.

All India Team in England (1959)—Played 33 ; won 6 ; lost 11 (including 5 tests) ; drawn 16.

Official Test Matches
India v. England

	Match played	*Eng. won*	*India won*	*Drawn*
1932 In England	.. 1	1	0	0
1933-34 In India	.. 3	2	0	1
1936 In England	.. 3	2	0	1
1946 In England	.. 3	1	0	2
1951-52 In India	.. 5	1	1	3
1952 In England	.. 4	3	0	1
1959 In England	.. 5	5	0	0
	24	15	1	8

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India v. Australia

	Match played	Aust. won	India won	Drawn
1947-48 In Australia	.. 5	4	0	1
1956 In India	.. 3	2	0	1
1959-60 In India	.. 5	2	1	1

India v. West Indies

	Match played	W. Indies won	India won	Drawn
1948-49 In India	.. 5	1	0	4
1953 In W. Indies	.. 5	1	0	4
1958-59 In India	.. 5	3	0	2
	15	5	0	10

India v. Pakistan

	Match played	India won	Pakistan won	Drawn.
1952 In India	.. 5	2	1	2
1954-55 In Pakistan	.. 5	0	0	5
	10	2	1	7

India v. New Zealand

	Match played	N.Zealand won	India won	Drawn.
1955-56 In India	.. 5	0	2	3

INDIA'S TEST RECORD

Highest Innings total—By India; 537 (3 wkts. Dec.) *v.* New Zealand, Madras, 1955-56.
—Against India : 674 by Australia, Adelaide, 1947-48.
Highest Individual Score—231 Mankad, *v.* New Zealand, Madras 1955-56.
Against India : 256 Kanhai (West Indies) Calcutta, 1958-59.
Century on Ist Appearance—118 L. Amarnath v. England, Bombay, 1933-34.
110 D. H. Shodhan v. Pakistan, Cal. 1952.
100 (Not out) Kripal Singh v. New Zealand, Hyderabad, 1955.
Highest partnership for any wicket—413 (1st wkt.) *v.* Mankad and P. Roy *v.* New Zealand, Madras, 1955-56.
Most runs in a Series—560 R. S. Modi *v.* West Indies 1948-49 ; 560 P. K. Umrigar *v.* West Indies 1953.
Most Wickets in an Innings—9—S. P. Gupta *v.* West Indies, Kanpur, 1958.
9—J. Patel *v.* Australia, Kanpur, 1959.
Century in each Innings—116 and 145—V. S. Hazare *v.* Australia, Adelaide, 1947-48.
Most Wickets in a Match—14 J. Patel *v.* Australia, Kanpur, 1959.

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CRICKET CHAMPIONSHIP OF INDIA
Winners of Ranji Trophy

[*A gold cup presented by the Maharaja of Patiala in memory of the famous Indian Cricketer, Prince Ranjitsinji.*]

1934-35 Bombay	1941-42 Bombay	1949-50 Baroda
1935-36 Bombay	1942-43 Baroda	1950-51 Holkar
1936-37 Nawanagar	1943-44 Western India	1951-52 Bombay
1937-38 Hyderabad	1944-45 Bombay	1953-54 Bombay
1938-39 Bengal	1945-46 Holkar	1954-55 Madras
1939-40 Maharashtra	1946-47 Baroda	1955-56 Bombay
1940-41 Maharashtra	1947-48 Holkar	1957-58 Baroda
	1948-49 Bombay	1958-59 Bombay

Ranji Trophy Records

Great Totals

912—Holkar *v.* Mysore for 8 wickets, 1945-46.
826—Maharashtra *v.* Western India States, 1948.
798—Maharashtra *v.* Northern India, 1940.
784—Baroda *v.* Holkar, 1946.
764—Bombay *v.* Holkar, 1944.
760—Bengal *v.* Bombay, 1951-52.
757—Holkar *v.* Hyderabad, 1950.
735—Bombay *v.* Maharashtra, 1943.
725—Bombay *v.* Maharashtra for 8 wickets, 1950.
714— Do Do for 8 wickets, 1948.
675—Maharashtra *v.* Bombay, 1940.
658—S. Punjab *v.* N. India for 8 wickets, 1945.
651—Bombay *v.* Maharashtra, 1941.

Most centuries in an innings—6 centuries by Holkar *v.* Mysore, 1944—(*World Record*).

Highest aggregate in one innings—1325 runs by Maharashtra *v.* Bombay. Poona, (1941-42).

Lowest Victory—By one run, Bengal *v.* Bihar (1941-42).

Most centuries in a match: 9, Bombay (5) *v.* Maharashtra (4), Poona, 1948 (*World Record*).

650—Maharashtra *v.* Baroda for 9 wickets, 1949.
645—Bombay *v.* Baroda, 1945.
638—Bombay *v.* Sind for 8 wickets, 1947.
632—Bombay *v.* Maharashtra for 7 wickets, 1947.

Smallest Total—22 runs, S. Punjab *v.* N. India (1934).

Lowest innings total: 22 (S. Punjab) *v.* Uttar Bharat, Amritsar, 1934.

Second Wicket Partnership—455 runs between B. B. Nimbalkar (443 not out) and Bhandarkar (205) for Maharashtra *v.* Kathiawar, 1948 (*World Record*).

Fourth Wicket Partnership—577 runs between V. S. Hazare (288) and Gul Mahomed (319) for Baroda *v.* Holkar (*World Record*).

Highest match aggregate: 2376 for 38 wickets (Bombay *v.* Maharashtra, Poona, 1948) *World Record.*

Largest number of overs in a match—C. S. Naidu for Holkar *v.* Bombay in the final in 1944-45 bowled 152.5 overs of 6 balls each—917 balls (*World Record*).

Largest wicket by a bowler—P. Chatterjee (Bengal) took 15 wickets in Bengal *v.* Madhya Pradesh, 1955.

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Highest Individual Scores in the Ranji Trophy

*443—B. B. Nimbalkar (Maharashtra) v. Western Indian States (1948).
*359—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) v. Maharashtra (1943-44).
319—Gul Mahomed (Baroda) against Holkar (1946-47).
*316—V. S. Hazare (Maharashtra) against Holkar (1939).
288—Hazare (Baroda) against Holkar (1946-47).
278—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against Holkar (1944-45).
*249—D. Compton (Holkar) (1944-45).
246—D. B. Deodhar (Maharashtra) against Bombay (1940-41).
*245—R. S. Modi (Bom.) against Baroda (1944-45).
*234—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against Sind (1945-46).
233—S. Mustaq Ali (Holkar) against U. P.
217—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against W. India (1944).
217—V. M. Merchant (Bom.) against Hyderabad (1947).
*230—K. C. Ibrahim (Bom.) against N.-W. India (1941-42).

Rohinton Baria Inter-University Cricket

[*Gold cup presented by Mr. A. D. Baria of Bombay to perpetuate the memory of his son, Rohinton Baria who died at an early age.*]

1935-37 Punjab Univ.; 1938-42 Bombay Univ.; 1943 Punjab Univ.; 1944-49 Bombay Univ.; 1950-51 Mysore Univ.; 1952 Bombay Univ.; 1953 Bom. Univ.; 1954 Delhi Univ.; 1955-59 Bom. Univ.

FOOTBALL

I. F. A. Shield, Calcutta

(*Started in the year 1893*)

1930 Seaforth Highlanders; 1931 H. L. I.; 1932 2nd Bn. Essex Regt. 1933 D. C. L. I.; 1934 *Game abandoned*; 1935 East Yorks; 1936 Mohamedan Sp.; 1937 6th Field Brigade; 1938 East Yorks); 1939 Police A.C.; 1940 Aryans; 1941-42 Mohamedan Sp.; 1943 East Bengal; 1944 E.B. Rly.; 1945 East Bengal; 1946 *Abandoned*; 1947 Mohan Bagan; 1948 Mohan Bagan; 1949-51 East Bengal; 1952 Finalists Mohan Bagan and Rajasthan (*match abandoned*); 1953 India Culture League (Bom.); 1954 Mohan Bagan; 1955 Rajasthan Club (Cal.); 1955 Mohan Bagan; 1957 Mohamedan Sp.; 1958 East Bengal. 1959 undecided; 1960 Mohan Bagan.

Rover's Cup, Bombay

(*Started in 1891*)

1930 K. O. S. B.; 1931 Royal W. Kents; 1932 Royal Irish Fusiliers; 1933 King's Liverpool Regt.; 1934 Sherwood Foresters; 1935-36 King's Liverpool Regt.; 1937-38 Bangalore Muslims; 1939 28th Field Brigade; 1940 Mohamedan Sporting, Calcutta; 1941 Welch Regiment; 1942 Bata Sp. Club (Calcutta); 1943 R. A. F.; 1944 British Base Reinforcement Camp; 1945 Military Police; 1946 Bri-

*Not out.

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tish Base Reinforcement Camp ; 1947 *Tournament abanaoned due to stand collapse* ; 1948 Bangalore Muslims ; 1949 East Bengal ; 1950-54 Hyderabad Police ; 1955 Mohan Bagan ; 1956 Mahomedan Sporting ; 1957 Hyderabad Police ; 1958 Caltex (Bombay) ; 1959—Mahomedan Sp. Cal. ; 1960 Andhra Police.

Durand Cup, Delhi
(*Started 1888*)

1950 Hyderabad Police ; 1951-52 East Bengal ; 1953 Mohan Bagan ; 1954 Hyderabad Police ; 1955 Madras Regimental Centre ; 1956 East Bengal ; 1957 Hyderabad Police ; 1958 Madras Regimental Centre ; 1959 Mohan Bagan ; 1960 Mohan Bagan & East Bengal.

D. C. M. Football Competition, Delhi

1949 Raisina Sp. Union (Delhi) ; 1950 East Bengal ; 1951 Rajas than Club ; 1952 East Bengal ; 1953 Aryan Gymkhana (Bang.) ; 1954 Geological Survey of India (Calcutta) ; 1955 Indian Air Force ; 1956 Indian Air Force ; 1957 East Bengal ; 1958 Mohamedan Sp. (Cal.); 1959 Hyderabad Police ; 1960 East Bengal.

National Football Championship
(*Santosh Memorial Trophy*)

[The trophy for the championship was donated by the I.F.A. (Bengal) in memory of the late Raja Manmatha Nath Ray Chaudhury of Santosh, who was the president of the I.F.A. for many years.]

1941 Bengal ; 1942-43 *No Play* ; 1944 Delhi ; 1945 Bengal ; 1946 Mysore ; 1947 Bengal ; 1948 *No Play* ; 1949 Bengal ; 1950 Bengal ; 1951 Bengal ; 1951 Bengal ; 1952 Mysore ; 1953 Bengal ; 1954 Bombay ; 1955 Bengal ; 1956 Hyderabad ; 1957 Hyderabad ; 1958 Bengal ; 1959 Bengal ;

Inter-University Football Championship
(*Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee Trophy*)

1941 Calcutta ; 1942 Punjab ; 1943 Punjab ; 1944 Punjab ; 1945 Aligarh ; 1946 Madras ; 1947 Madras ; 1948 Madras ; 1949 Mysore ; 1950 Calcutta ; 1951 Nagpur ; 1952 Aligarh ; 1953 Calcutta ; 1954 Osmania ; 1955 Osmania ; 1956 Osmania 1957 Calcutta ; 1958 Punjab 1959 Osmania ; 1960 Calcutta.

HOCKEY

National Hockey Championship
(*Rangaswami Cup*)
(*Started in 1928*)

1928 U. P. ; 1930 Railways ; 1932 Punjab ; 1934 *No Competition* ; 1936 Bengal ; 1938 Bengal ; 1940 Bombay ; 1942 Delhi ; 1944 Bombay ; 1945 Bhopal ; 1946 Punjab ; 1947 Punjab ; 1948 Bhopal ; 1949-51 Punjab ; 1952 Bengal ; 1953 Services ; 1954 Punjab ; 1955 Madras & Services (*joint holders*) ; 1956 Services ; 1957 Railways ; 1958 Railways ; 1959 Railways ; 1960 Services.

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Beighton Cup, Calcutta
(*Started in 1895*)

1931-32 Cal. Customs ; 1933 Jhansi Heroea ; 1934 Cal. Rangers ; 1935 Cal. Customs ; 1936 Bombay Customs ; 1937 B. N. Railway (*Kharagpur*) ; 1938 Cal. Customs ; 1939 B. N. Ry., (*Kharagpur*) ; 1940 Bhopal Wanderers ; 1941 Bhagwant Club (*Tikamgarh*) and Bhopal Wanderers ; 1942 Cal. Rangers ; 1943-45 B. N. Ry. (*Kharagpur*); 1946 Port Commissioners (Cal.) ; 1947 *No game* ; 1948 U. P. XI & Port Commissioners (*Calcutta*) ; 1949-50 Tata Sports (*Bom.*) ; 1951 Hindustan Aircraft (*Bangalore*) ; 1952 Mohun Bagan ; 1953-54 Tata Sports (*Bom.*) ; 1955 Western Railway (*Bom.*) & U.P. XI ; 1956 Services Hockets ; 1957 East Bengal ; 1958 Mohun Bagan ; 1959 Corps of Engineers, Kirtee ; 1960 Mohan Bagan.

Aga Khan Cup, Bombay

1934 Bombay Customs ; 1935 Bombay Customs ; 1936 Bombay Customs ; 1937 Lahore Y. M. C. A. ; 1938 Bhagwant Club (*Tricumgarh*) ; 1939 Bhopal Wanderers ; 1940 B. B. C. I. Ry. ; 1941 Bhagwant Club (*Tikamgarh*) ; 1942 *No play* ; 1943 G. I. P. Ry. ; 1944 Kamala Club (*Kanpur*) ; 1945 Kamala Club (*Kanpur*) ; 1946 Kalyanmal Mills (*Indore*) ; 1947 Rawalpindi Spartans ; 1948 Kirkee United ; 1949 East Punjab Police ; 1950 Tata Sports ; 1951-52 Tata Sports (*Bombay*); 1953 Lusitanians (*Bom.*) ; 1954 *Abandoned* ; 1955 Punjab Police ; 1956 Bombay State Police ; 1957 Madras Engineer Group (*Bangalore*) ; 1958 Burmah Shell ; 1960 Punjab Police.

Women's National Hockey Championship
Inaugurated in 1938—*Lady Ratan Tata Cup*

1938 .. Kharagpur	1949 .. Bombay.	1953 .. Bom. & Beng.
1939 .. Calcutta.	1950 .. M. P.	1954-55 M. P.
1947 .. Bombay.	1951 .. Bombay.	1957-59 Bombay.
1948 .. Bombay.	1952 .. Bombay.	1960 .. Mysore.

NATIONAL AMATEUR BILLIARD CHAMPIONS
(Started in 1931)

1951—Wilson Jones	1957 C. Hiraji
1952—Tom Cleary.	1958—Wilson Jones
1953—A. Driffield (England).	1959—Wilson Jones
1954-55—Wilson Jones (Bom.)	1960—Wilson Jones
1956—C. Heerjee.	

NATIONAL BASKETBALL CHAMPIONSHIP
(*Todd Memorial Trophy*)

1952-53 Mysore ; 1954-55 Mysore ; 1956 Mysore ; 1957-58 Services ; 1959 Services. 1960 Services.

WOMEN'S BASKETBALL : BASLAT CUP

1957 West Bengal ; 1958 West Bengal ; 1959 West Bengal. 1960 Mysore.

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NATIONAL TABLE TENNIS 1960

Team Championship—Bombay.
Men's Singles—S. K. Thakersey (Bom.)
Men's Doubles—S. K. Thakersey & F. R. Khodaiji (Bom.).
Women's Team Championship—Railways.
Women's Singles—Mrs. Pisca Rosario.
Women's Doubles—Meena Parande & Rachel John.
Mixed Doubles—S. K. Thackersay & Meena Parande.

NATIONAL BADMINTON, 1960

Men's Doubles—Nandu Natekar & C. A. Deoras.
Men's Singles—Nandu Natekar.
Women's Singles—Miss Mina Shah.
Women's Doubles—Mrs. Prem Prashar & Miss Manda Kelkar.

INDIAN FIELD & TRACK RECORDS

MEN'S EVENTS

Hop Step & Jump	Mohinder Singh (Servs.)	'59	50 ft. 3 in.
Pole Vault	Ramchandran (Madras)	'61	13 ft. 1 in.
Hammer throw	Devidayal (Services)	'59	166 ft. 10 in.
Discus throw	Parduman Singh (Servs.)	'59	157 ft. 7 in.
Javelin throw	Avar Singh (Punjab)	'60	201 ft. 4 in.
Shot Put	Parduman Singh (Servs.)	'59	47 ft. 9½ in.
High Jump	Ajit Singh (Punjab)	'59	6 ft. 6 in.
Broad Jump	Satyanarayana (Madras)	'59	23 ft. 3¼ in.
Decathlon	Gurbachan Singh (Punj.)	'60	5973 points.
100 metres „	Milkha Singh (Servs.)	'60	10.4 s.
200 „ „	Milkha Singh (Services)	'60	20.8 s.
400 „ „	Milkha Singh (Services)	'60	46.1 s.
800 „ „	Daljit Singh (Servs.)	'59	1 m. 52.2 s.
1,500 „ „	Mukhtiar Singh (Servs.)	'59	3 m. 51.6 s.
5,000 „ „	Pan Singh (Services)	'60	14 m. 43.2 s.
10,000 „ „	Buta Singh (Services)	'59	32 m. 27.2 s.
20,000 „ „	C. S. A. Swami (Bom.)	..	1 h. 16 m. 0 s.
20,000 „ „	R. G. Michael „	..	2 h. 13 m. 50 s.
Marathon	Lalchand	'60	2 h. 28 m. 22.4 s.
20,000 M. walk	Jora Singh (Services)	'60	1 hr. 33 m. 33 s.
50 kilometres walk	Ajit Singh (Services)	'55	4 h. 47 m. 29·6 s.
4×100 m. relay	Services	'60	42.1 s.
4×400 „ „	Services	'60	3 hr. 12.6 s.
110 metre hurdles	Jagmohan Singh (Punj.)	'60	14.4 s.
400 „ „	Jagdev Singh (Services)	'59	54.1 s.
3,000 m. Steeplechase	Pan Singh (Services)	'60	9 m. 7.8 s.

WOMEN'S EVENTS

100 metres run	S. D'Souza	'60	12.3 s.
	M. D'Souza (Bom.)	'54	12·3 s.
200 metres run	M. D'Souza (Bom.)	'56	25.7 s.
Running High Jump	Miss U. Lyons (Punjab)	'40	4 ft. 11¾ in.

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80 metres hurdles	M. Lila Rao (Bom.)	'58	11.5 s.
High Jump	Vasant Kumari (Kerala)	'57	5 ft. 1 in.
Discuss Throw	Momohini Oberoi	'60	120 ft. ½ in.
Javelin Throw	E. J. Davenport (Rajas.)	'60	145 ft. 5 in.
Broad Jump	C. Brown (Bom.)	'54	17 ft. 5 in.
Shot Put	E. Davenport (Bihar)	'57	35 ft. 7¾ in.

SWIMMING

100 m. free style	P. Ballestine (Bombay)	1 m. 18.6 s.
200 m. „	Dolly Nazir (Bombay)	3 m. 1.9 s.
400 m. „	Dolly Nazir (Bombay)	6 m. 30.6 s.
100 m. back stroke	Sandhya Chandra (Bengal)	1 m. 29.5 s.
100 m. breast stroke	Dolly Nazir (Bombay)	1 m. 38 s.
4×100 Relay	Bengal	6 m. 17.7 s.

INDIAN SWIMMING RECORDS

MEN

Free Style		
100 m.	S. Bazaz (Bombay)	60.3 s.
200 m.	S. Bazaz (Bombay)	2 m. 20 s.
400 m.	Ram Singh (Services)	5 m. 9.1 s.
1500 m.	Ram Singh (Services)	20 m. 22.5 s.
Back Stroke		
100 m.	S. Bazaz (Bombay)	1 m. 11.8 s.
200 m.	Rupchand (Services)	2 m. 42.3 s.
Breast Stroke		
100 m.	Ramdeo Singh (Services)	1 m. 17.3 s.
200 m.	Ramdeo Singh (Services)	2 m. 47.9 s.
Butterfly		
100 m.	Arun Saha (Bengal)	1 m. 12.8 s.
200 m.	S. G. Lathi (Bombay)	2 m. 51 s.
Relay		
4×100 Free Style	Bombay Team	4 m. 19.9 s.
4×200	Services Team	10 m. 5.3 s.

CRICKET

Record Individual Scores—First-Class Matches

499	Hanif Mahomed	1959	344	W. G. Grace	1876
*452	D. G. Bradman	1929-30	*343	P. A. Perrin	1904
*443	B. B. Nimbalkar	1948-49	341	G. H. Hirst	1905
437	W. H. Ponsford	1927-28	*340	D. G. Bradman	1928-29
429	W. H. Ponsford	1922-23	338	W. W. Read	1888
424	A. C. MacLaren	1895	*338	R. C. Blunt	1931-32
385	B. Sutcliffe	1952-53	337	Hanif Mahomed	1958
383	C. W. Gregory	1906-07	*336	W. R. Hammond	1932-33
869	D. G. Bradman	1935-36	339	W. H. Ponsford	1927-28

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*365	C. Hill ..	1900-01	334	D. G. Bradman ..	1930
364	L. Hutton ..	1938	333	K. S. Duleep Sinji	1930
365	G. Sobers ..	1958	332	W. H. Ashdown ..	1949
359	V. M. Merchant	1943-44	331	J. D. Robertson ..	1949
*357	R. Abel ..	1899	325	H. L. Harvey ..	1925-26
357	D. G. Bradman	1935-36	325	C. L. Badcock ..	1935-36
355	B. Sutcliffe ..	1949-50	325	A. Sandham ..	1929-30
352	W. H. Ponsford ..	1926-27	324	J. B. Stollmeyer ..	1946-47
345	C. G. Macartney	1921	322	E. Paynter ..	1937
*344	G. Headley ..	1931-32	321	W. L. Murdock ..	1881-82

World Cricket Records—First Class

Highest team innings (1st class)—1,107 Victoria v. New South Wales (Australia), 1926.

Highest Individual Score—452 (not out) D. G. Bradman, 1929-30.

First Wicket Partnership—555 Holmes and Sutcliffe for Yorkshire vs. Essex, 1932.

Second Wicket Partnership—455 by B. B. Nimbalkar and K. V. Bhandarkar for Maharasthra v. Western India States, 1948-49.

Highest Partnership—577, V. S. Hazare (288 not out) and Gul Mohammed (319), Baroda v. Holkar, 1947, (4th wicket).

Greatest aggregate of runs in a career—J. B. Hobbs—61,221 ; W. G. Grace—54,896.

Highest Aggregates—Bombay 615 and 714 for 6 declared v. Maharashtra, 407, 604. Total 2,376 (38 wickets).

Most Centuries in an innings—Six individual centuries by Holkar v. Mysore in Ranji Trophy, 1944-45.

Most Centuries in a Career—Hobbs—197 ; Hendren—170 ; Hammond—167 ; Mead—153 ; Sutcliffe—149 ; Woolley—145 ; W. G. Grace—126 ; Bradman 117 ; Sandham—107.

Lowest Score—12 runs by Oxford University v. M. C. C. in 1877.

Most Centuries in one season—D. C. S. Compton, 18 (1947) ; J. B. Hobbs 16 (1925) ; W. R. Hammond 15 (1938).

Fastest Century—100 (not out) by P. G. H. Fender for Surry v. Northhamtonshire (1920) in 35 minutes.

Test Duration Record—by Hanif Mohammed (Pakistan)—337 runs in 16 hours 13 minutes in West Indies 1958.

MILING MILESTONES

		mins.	secs.
1923	Paavo Nurmi (*Finland*)	4.	10.4
1931	Jules Ladoumegue (*France*)	4.	9.2
1933	Jack Lovelock (*Mew Zeland*)	4.	7.6
1934	Glenn Cunningham (*U.S.A*)	4.	6.8
1937	Sydney Wooderson (*G.B*)	4.	6.4
1942	Gundar Haegg (*Sweden*)	4.	6.2
1942	Gundar Haegg (*Sweden*)	4.	4.6

*Not out.

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1943	Arne Andersson (*Sweden*)	4.	2.6
1944	Arne Andersson (*Sweden*)	4.	1.6
1945	Gundar Haegg (*Sweden*)	4.	1.4
1954	Roger Bannister (*G.B*)	3.	59.4
1954	John Landy (*Australia*)	3.	58.0
1957	Derek Ibboston (*GB*)	3.	57.2
1958	Herb Elliott (*Australia*)	3.	54.5

WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

MEN

Running

100 yds.	9.3 s.	W. Woodhouse (U. S.) '59 R. Cook (U.S.) '59 M. E. Paton (U.S.) '48 H. D. Hogan (Aus.) '54 H. D. Hogan (Aus.) '57 L. King (U.S.) '56 Dave Sim (U.S.) '56 B. J. Morrow (U.S.) '57 R. Norton (U.S.) '58
220 yd.	20 s.	Dave Sim (U.S.) '56
440 yd.	45.7s.	G. Davis '58
1 m.	3 m. 54.5s.	H. J. Elliot (Aus.) '58
2 m.	8 m. 32.0s.	A. G. Thomas (Aus.) '58
3 m.	13 m. 10.8s.	do do '58
6 m.	27 m. 43.8 s.	S. I. Iharos (Hungary) '56
10 m.	48 m. 12 s.	E. Zatopek (C'slovakia) '51
15 m.	1 h. 14 m. 1 s.	do do '55
100 metres	10.0 s.	A. Hary (Germany) '60 H. W. Jerome (Canada) '60
200 metres	20 s.	D. Sime (U.S.) '56
400 metres	44.9 s.	Otis Davis (U.S.) '60 Kaufman (Germany) '60
800 metres	1 m. 45.7 s.	R. Moens (Belgium) '55
1000 metres	2 m. 17.8 s.	D. Warren (Sweden) '59
1,500 meters.	3.m. 35. s.	H. Elliot (Aus.) '60
2000 metres	5 m. 2.2 s.	I. Rozsavolgyi (Hungary) '55
3,000 metres	7 m. 52.8 s.	Gordon Pirie (Eng.) '56
5,000 metres	13 m. 35 s.	V. Kuts (USSR) '57
10,000 metres	28 m. 30.4 s.	V. Kuts (USSR) '56
20,000 metres	59 m. 51.8 s.	E. Zatopek (C'slovakia) '51
25,000 metres	1 h. 16 m. 36.4 s.	do do '55
30,000 metres	1 h. 35 m. 1 s.	I. Ivanov (USSR) '57

Hurdles

120 yd.	13.2 s.	M. Lauer (Ger.) '59
220 yd.	22.1 s.	E. Gilbert (U.S.) '58
110 metres	13.2 s.	M. Lauer (Ger.) '59
200 metres 2'-6"	22.1 s.	J. E. Gilbert (U.S.) '58
400 metres 3 ft.	49.2 s.	G. Davis (U.S.) '58 ..

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Field Events		
High Jump	7 ft. 3½ in.	J. Thomas (U.S.) '59
Long Jump	26 ft. 9¼ in.	Jesse Owens (U.S.) '35
Hop, Step	16.8 metres	Schmidt (Poland) '60
Pole Vault	15 ft. 9¼ in.	D. Bragg (U.S.) '59
Shot put	65 ft. 7 in.	W. Neider (U.S.)
Discus	196 ft. 6½ in.	E. Paitkowski (Poland) '59
Javelin	282 ft. 3½ in.	A. Cantella (U.S.) '59
Hammer	225 ft. 4 in.	A. V. Connolly '58
Decathlon	8,683 points	R. Johnson (U. S.) '59
WALK		
10,000 metres	42 m. 18.3 s.	G. Panichkin (USSR) '58
20,000 „	1 hr. 27 m. 5 s.	V. Golubrichiy (USSR) 58
30,000 „	2hrs. 17 m. 16.8 s	E. Zame (USSR) '59
50,000 „	4 hrs. 16 m. 8.6 s.	S. Lobastor (USSR) '58

WOMEN'S WORLD RECORDS

Running		
100 yd.	10.3 s.	M. Willard (Aus.) '58
220 yd.	23.2 s.	B. Cuthburt (Australia)
880 yd.	2 m. 6.6 s.	Nima Otkalenko (USSR) '56
100 metres	11.3 s.	Shirley Hunty (Aus.) '55 Krepkina (USSR) '58 Wilma Rudolph (U. S.) '60
200 metres	23.2 s.	Betty Cuthbert (Aus.) '56
400 metres	53.4 s.	M. Itkina (USSR) '59
800 metres	2 m. 4.3 s.	Lisenko (USSR) '60
Field Events		
Long Jump	20 ft. 10 in.	E. Dumka-Krzekinska (Poland) '56
High Jump	6 ft. ¾ in.	I. Balas (Roumania) '59
Discus	187 ft. 1½ in.	Nina Dumbadze (USSR) '52
Javelin	195 ft. 2½ in.	E. Ozoloni (USSR) '59
Shotput	56 ft. 7 in.	Tamara Press (USSR) '59
Pantathlon	4,880 points	Irina Press (USSR) '59

SWIMMING RECORDS

MEN

Free Style		
100 metres	0 : 54.6	John Devitt (Australia) '57
110 yd.	0 : 55.2	do do '57
800 metres	9 : 14.5	J. Konrads (Australia) '57
880 yd.	9 : 14.5	do do '58
1500 metres	17 : 28.7	do do '58
Breast Stroke		
100 metres	1 : 11.4	M. H. Hsiung (China) '50

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Butterfly		
100 metres	1 : 00.1	T. Ishmoto (Japan) '58
Backstone Back Stroke		
100 metres	1 : 01.5	John Monckton (Australia) '58
200 metres	2 : 18.4	John Monckton (Australia) '58

WOMEN

Free Style		
100 metres	1 : 01.2	Dawn Fraser (Aus.) '58
220 yds.	2 : 14.7	do do '58
440 yds.	4 : 48.6	L. Craph (Aus.) '56
800 metres	10 : 11.8	Ilsa Konrads (Australia) '58
880 yds.	10 : 11.8	do do '58
1,500 metres	20 : 03.1	Jans Koster (Netherlands) '57
Breast Stroke		
100 metres	2 : 51.3	A. Denn Hann (Netherlands) '58
200 metres	2 : 49.5 s.	A. Lonsbrough (Britain) '60
Butterfly		
200 metres	1 : 09.6	Nancy Ramey (U.S.) '58
Back Stroke		
100 metres	1 : 11.7	R. Van Velsen (Netherlands) '5
200 metres	2 : 37.1	S. Tanaka (Japan) '59

DAVIS CUP

(International Lawn Tennis : Men's Team Events—Started in 1900)

1900-02	U.S.A.	1919	Australasia	1946-49	U.S.A.
1903-06	Great Britain	1920-26	U.S.A.	1950-53	Australia
1907-11	Australasia	1927-32	France	1954	U.S.A.
1912	Great Britain	1933-36	Great Britain	1955-57	Australia
1913	U. S. A.	1937-38	U.S.A.	1958	U.S.A.
1914	Australasia	1939	Australia	1959-60	Australia

WIGHTMAN CUP (Women's Team Events)

(*Annual Competition by women lawn tennis players of Great Britain and U.S.A.*—Started in 1923)

1948 U.S.	1953 U.S.	1958 England
1949 U.S.	1954 U.S.	1959 U. S. A.
1950 U.S.	1955 U.S.	1960 England
1951 U.S.	1956 U.S.	
1952 U.S.	1957 U.S.	

WIMBLEDON TENNIS CHAMPIONSHIP

(*International Lawn Tennis tournament for individual championship*)

Men's Singles

1952 F. A. Sedgman	1955 T. Trabert (U.S.)	1958 A. Cooper (Aus.)
1953 E. V. Seixas (U.S.)	1956 Lew Hoad (Aus.)	1959 A. Olmedo (Peru)
1954 J. Drobny	1957 Lew Hoad (Aus.)	1960 N. Fraser (Aus)

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Women's Singles

1953 M. Connolly (U.S.)
1954 M. Connolly (U.S.)
1955 Louise Brough (U.S.)
1956 Shirley Fry (U.S.).
1957 Althea Gibson (U.S.).
1958 do do
1959 Maria E. Bueno (Brazil)
1960 do do

WORLD CHESS CHAMPIONS

1851-58—A. Anderssen (Ger.)
1858-62—Paul Morphy (U.S.)
1862-66—A. Anderssen (Ger.)
1866-94—W. Steinitz (Australia)
1894-1921—E. Lasker (Ger.)
1921-27—J. R. Capablanca (Cuba)
1927-35—A. A. Alekhine (Russia)
1935-37—Dr. M. Euwe (Holland)
1937-46—A. Alekhine (Russia)
1946-47—*Vacant.*
1948-57—M. Botvinnik (Russia)
1957—V. Smyslov (Russia)
1958—M. Botwinnik (Russia)
1960—Tal (Latvia)

WORLD BOXING CHAMPIONS

Heavy Weight (any weight)—
Floyd Patterson (U.S.)
Light Heavy Weight (175 lb.)—
Archie Moore (U.S.)
Middle Weight (160 lb.)—
Jene Fullmer (U.S.)
Welter Weight (147 lb.)—
Benny Paret (Cuba)
Light Weight (135 lb.)—
Joe Brown (U.S.A.)
Feather Weight (126 lb.)—
Davey Moore (U.S.)
Bantam Weight (118 lb.)—
J. Becerra (Mexico)
Fly Weight (112 lb.)—
Pone Kingpetch (Thiland)

MODERN HEAVY-WEIGHT CHAMPIONS

1882-92 John L. Sulivan
1892-97 James J. Corbett
1897-99 Robert Fitzsimmons
1899-1905 James J. Jeffries
1905-1906 Marvin Hart
1906-08 Tommy Burns
1908-15 Jack Johnson
1915-19 Jess Willard
1919-26 Jack Dempsey
1926-28 Gene Tunney
1930-32 Max Schmeling
1932-33 Jack Sharkey
1934-35 Max Baer
1935-37 Jim Braddock
1937-49 Joe Louis
1949-51 Ezzard Charles
1951-52 Joe Walcott
1952-55 Rocky Marciano
1956-59 Floyd Patterson
1959—Ingemar Johansson (Swd.)
1960—Floyd Patterson (U.S.)

WORLD FOOTBALL CUP

(Jules Rimet Cup)

(Played every fourth year—started in 1930)

1930—Uruguay
1934—Italy
1938—Italy
1950—Uruguay
1954—Germany
1958—Brazil

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THOMAS CUP
(International Badminton Championship)

1948-49—Malaya
1952—Malaya
1954-55—Malaya
1957-58—Indonesia

OLYMPIC HOCKEY CHAMPIONS

1908	Great Britain	1932	India	1952	India
1920	Great Britain	1936	India	1956	India
1928	India	1948	India	1960	Pakistan

OLYMPIC RECORDS—SWIMMING

MEN'S EVENTS

Event	Record	Holder	Year
100 m. Freestyle	55.2 sec.	J. Devitt (Australia) L. Larson (U. S. A)	'60 '60
400 m. Freestyle	4 min. 18.3 sec.	M. Rose (Australia)	'60
1,500 m. Freestyle	17 min. 19.6 s.	J. Konrads (Australia)	'60
100 m. Back Stroke	1 min. 1.9 sec.	D. Theile (Australia)	'60
200 m. Breast Stroke (Underwater) ‡	2 min. 34.7 sec.	Farukawa (Japan)	'56
200 m. Breast Stroke	2 min. 37.2 sec. (Heat)	W. Mulliken (U.S.A)	'60
*200 m. Butterfly "	2 min. 12.8 sec.	M. Troy (U. S. A.)	'60

RELAY

*4×200 m. Freestyle	8 min. 10.2 sec. (U. S. A)	1960
*4×100 Midley	4 min. 5.4 sec (U. S. A)	1960

WOMENS EVENTS

†100 m. Freestyle	61.2 Sec.	D. Fraser (Australia)	'60
400 m. Freestyle	4 min. 50.6 sec.	S.C.Von Saltza(U.S.A.)	'60
100 m. Back Stroke	1 min. 9.3 sec.	L. Burke (U. S. A)	'60
*200 m. Breast Stroke	2 min. 42.5 sec.	A. Lonsbrough (Br.)	'60
100 m. Butterfly „	1 min. 9.5 sec.	C. Schuler (U. S. A)	'60

RELAY

4×100 m. Freestyle	4 min. 8.9 sec. (U. S. A)	1960
*4×100 m. Medley	4 min. 41.1 sec. (U. S. A.)	1960

DIVING

MEN'S EVENTS

Spring Board	696.4 pts.	A. C. White (U.S.A)	'24
High Board	165.56 pts.	R. Webster (U.S.A)	'60

*New World record. †equals world record ‡When under water swiming was permitted.

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WOMENS EVENTS

Spring Board	539.9 pts.	A. Riggin (U.S.A)	'20
High Board	91.28 pts.	Ingrid Kramer (Ger.)	'60

GOLD MEDAL WINNERS

SWIMMING : U.S.A.—9, Australia—5 and Britain—1,
DIVING : U.S.A.—2 and Germany—2.
ROWING : Germany—3, U.S.S.R.—2, U.S.A.—1 and Czechoslovokia—1.
BOXING : Italy—3, U.S.A.—3, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, U.S.S.R. and Poland one each.
WEIGHTLIFTING : U.S.S.R.—5, U.S.A. and Poland one each.
SHOOTING : U.S.S.R.—2, Australia, U.S.A., Rumania and Germany one each.
CYCLING : Italy—5, U.S.S.S.R.—1.
WATERPOLO : Final Placings 1st Italy, 2nd Russia, 3rd Hungary.
FOOTBALL : 1st Jugoslavia, 2nd Denmark, 3rd Hungary, Yugoslavia beat Denmark 3—1 in the final.
HOCKEY : 1st Pakistan, 2nd India, 3rd Spain, Pakistan beat India 1—0 in the final.
BASKETBALL : 1st U.S.A., 2nd U.S.S.S.R., 3rd Brazil.
WRESTLING (Greco-Roman Style) : Turkey—3, U.S.S.S.R.—3, Rumania and Bulgaria one each.
WRESTLING : (Freestyle) Turkey—4, U.S.A.—3 and Germany—1.
TRACK AND FIELD : Men's Events : U.S.A.—9, U.S.S.R.—5, Germany, Newzealand and Poland two each, Britain, Australia, Italy and Ethopia one each.
WOMEN'S EVENTS : U.S.S.R.—6, U.S.A.—3, Rumania—1.
GIMNASTICS : U.S.S.R.—3 and Japan—1.

WORLD VOLLYBALL CHAMPIONSHIPS—1960

MEN'S EVENT : U.S.S.R.—P-9, W-9, L-0, Points 18 (Winners) ; Czechoslovakia—P-9, W-8, L-1, Points 16 (Runners-up).
WOMEN'S EVENT : U.S.S.R.—P-5, W-5, L-0, Points 10 (Winners),, Japan—P-5, W-4, L-1, Points 8 (Runners-up).

WORLD CHESS OLYMPIAD—1960

WINNERS : U.S.S.R. (34 Points).

SOME NOTABLE WORLD RECORDS

Water Speed Record—Donald Campbell (Eng.)—260.35 m.p.h. in turbo-jet hydroplane '*Blue Bird*,' 1959.

Motor Cycle Record—Wilhelm Herz (Ger.)—210.64 m.p.h. over a measured mile on Aug. 4, 1956.

Record Dive—George Wookey (England)—600 feet in a helmated flexible diving suit, 1956.

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World's Fastest on land (motor)—John Cobb (England) 394,196 m.p.h. (1947) ; *24 hours*—Eyston (England), 3578.3 miles.

Automobile World Speed
(One mile per hour)

Year	*Speed*	
1898	39.24	C. Laubat.
1904	91.37	Henry Ford.
1910	131.724	B. Oldfield.
1919	149.875	Ralph D. Palma.
1935	301.13	Sir M. Campbell.
1947	394.196	John. R. Cobb.

Miscellaneous Records

Golf Ball—176 ft. per second.
Tennis Ball—220 ft. in one second by W. T. Tilden II in 1931.
Ski Jumping—316 feet distance by A. Samuelstuen (Norway), 1951.
Rifle—2,880 miles per hour (*i.e.*, 4,100 ft. per second).
Sound—780 miles per hour.

Leaping—Frog : 16 ft. 10 in. by 'Lucky' (America).
Horse : 37 ft. by steeple chaser, Chandler, 1947 in England (Average is 23 and 27 ft.).

Tightrope Walking—The world tightrope endurance record is 113 hours by Willi Pischler 1955.

Diving—Jack Brown, April 28, 1945 attained a depth of 550 ft.
Diving, highest—205 ft. 9 in. by Alex. Wickham (Solomon Islands).

Mountain Climbing—29,018 ft. highest known ascent on Mt. Everest by Sir Edmund Hillary and Sherpa Tenzing Norkey, 1952.

Rope Skipping—22,806 turns (no break) in 2 hours by Tom Morris (Australia) in 1937

Cricket Ball Throw—422 ft. by R. Pareival, Durham, England, 1884.

Railway World Speed Record—243 kilometres (about 152 miles) per hour on *electrified* Paris-Lyons line (Feb. 19-21, 1945).

Underwater Staying—world record by Dr. Robert Keast, 18th March 1956 for 10 minutes 58.9 seconds.

Non-stop talking—world record by Kevin Sheean (Ireland) for 133 hours (5 days 13 hours) 28th Nov. to 3rd Dec., 1955.

Piano Playing—world record by Heinz Arntz (Berlin) on 1st May 1955 by playing piano non-stop except for refreshment intervals for 423 hours (17 days 15 hours).

Deepest Dive—Bathyscape *Trieste* set a world record by diving to the bottom of the sea, 37,800 feet, Marianas Trench in the Pacific Ocean with Prof. Picaard and Lt. Donwalch abroad on 24th Jan. 1960.

Some Indian Records

Channel Swimmers—Mihir Sen, Dr. Bimal Chandra, Miss Arati Saha.
First Women Parachute Jumper—Gita Chanda.

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CINEMA IN INDIA

FILMS IN INDIA—Since the day Dada Saheb Phalke produced the first Indian film *Harischandra* in the year 1912, the cinema industry has been making steady progress in India. By 1928, production had reached 80 full-length films per year. The movie gave place to the talkie in the year 1931 when the first Indian talking picture *Alam Ara* was presented to the screen by the Imperial Film Co., Bombay. The conversion of the Indian film industry to sound was more or less complete by 1935. Today India produces about 300 pictures a year and she is the third largest producer of films in the world, but it must be admitted that this huge production is not correlated to a high level of creative excellence. Indian film industry consumes about 200,000,000 feet of raw film every year and employes about 70,000 people in this industry. At present there are over 4,200 cinema halls in India ; in 1919 it was 1500. The number of film studoes is 63, of which 28 are in Bombay, 23 in the South and 11 in Calcutta. On an average, 70 crores of people see cinema pictures in a year, which means an average of two films a year per Indian. It is estimated that the film industry employs over one lakh people in the studios, cinemas, processing laboratories and in distribution work. Besides, it has produced a good field for several auxiliary business like publicity, make-up, etc. Cinema industry occupies eighth place among the industries of India.

Bombay, Calcutta and Madras are the main centres of film production. Over 50 per cent of the pictures are produced in Bombay, the share of Calcutta and Madras varies from 20 to 25 per cent. The number of processing laboratories is 29, 18 of which are situated in western region, 16 in southern region and five in eastern region.

The number of distributors and distributing agencies in the country has been estimated variously at 700 to 900. They enjoy rights of distribution in certain areas or territories which are known as Circuits. Besides these commercial distributors, there are 26 concerns which distribute short films either in 35 mm or 16 mm on commercial basis and 14 on non-commercial basis. The biggest supplier and distributor of 35 mm short films is the Films Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. Distribution of foreign films in India is in the main carried on by affiliated organisations of the foreign producers themselves, though there are a few Indian concerns also in this field. The number of foreign distributors is 20, including ten subsidiaries of the foreign concerns.

Language difficulties have always been a major problem. But pictures are generally produced mainly in the following languages, *i.e.*, Hindi, Bengali, Tamil and Telugu, Marathi and Gujarati. Hindi pictures, which have an all-India market, are mostly produced in Bombay ; Bengali films are made in Calcutta, some of which find their way to East Pakistan where majority of the people speak Bengali.

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Madras is turning out Tamil and Telugu pictures for the vast South Indian market.

FILM ENQUIRY COMMITTEES—The first Film Enquiry Committee in 1928 made the following recommendations—(1) Constitution of All India Board of Committee, (3) Financial aid to producers, (4) Abolition of Import Duty on raw films, (5) Construction of more theatres, (6) Reduction of entertainment tax, etc.

The second Film Enquiry Committee's report was issued in October, 1951. The following were the main recommendations—

The proposed Film Council of India would act as the industry's 'friend, philosopher and guide' and would provide the necessary inspiration to conduct its affairs on healthy and constructive lines. The Council would set up panels to deal with different activities of the industry as well as research, the manufacture and supply of raw materials. The statutory nature of the Council would enable it to intervene effectively in disputes between different branches of the industry ; in regard to standards of production, however, the Council should function through the Production Code Administration.

Funds for the Council would be raised mainly through a cess on raw cinema film imported into or manufactured in this country, exposed cinematographic film from abroad and 10 per cent of the net income derived from the levy of entertainment tax on the exhibition of films. The proceeds of the cess will be utilised in research and training institutions for the industry.

The Council would run institutes for training of film artistes and technicians. To give a fillip to improved production standards, the Council would award annual prizes for the best story, best direction, best review and the best film.

An Educational Panel of the Council would be charged with the task of encouraging production of educational and children's films.

(2) *Production Code*—As an adjunct to the Film Council, the Committee recommends the setting up of a Production Code Administration. Its Panel of Experts would scrutinise every script and exercise some control over the production.

(3) *Film Finance Corporation*—The Film Finance Corporation proposed by the Committee will have an initial capital of Rs. 10 million subscribed by the State, industry and public. It may borrow an equal sum, with the approval of the Reserve Bank.

(4) *Taxation Relief*—The adoption of a uniform entertainment tax tariff at 20 per cent of the gross takings has been stressed as a dire need by the Committee, with a view to aiding the industry. It has also proposed a review of other miscellaneous fees, like licence fees for operation of cinemas and storage of films.

The Committee has recommended placing on O.G.L. raw film imports up to 240 million feet per annum. The distribution will be done through film associations.

(5) *Foreign Markets*—The Committee believed that in addition to expanding present overseas markets for Indian films, it might be possible for them to get into the English-speaking regions. An export corporation was envisaged to look after this aspect.

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No unprocessed film was to be sent abroad without the approval of the Production Code Administration.

(6) *Short Films*—The Committee feels that the present system of production and distribution of shorts and news-reels by Government should be continued in view of their proved usefulness.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA'S CONTROL—Department of Information and Broadcasting which for many years was a part of the Department of Home Affairs in the Government of India, had been separated in 1949 under the control of a separate Minister of State. This department is now known as Ministry of Information and Broadcasting and controls everything concerning films in India including Films Division of the Central Government.

FILMS DIVISION—The Films Division is a branch of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting with its headquarters at Malabar Hill, Bombay. It produces documentaries in English as well as in all principal Indian languages.

The Division consists of the following five distinct sections—*Documentary Section, Newsreel Section. Distribution Section, Public Relations Section*, and *Administrative Section.*

There are two distinct departments of the Films Division ; one is the documentary section, known as the *Documentary Films of India* and the other is *News Review.*—While the bulk of documentaries are produced by the Films Division, private producers are also entrusted with the production of films on selected subjects. The documentaries and newreels are produced in 13 languages. These are made in 35 mm. standard size and are of an average length of 1,000 ft.

The exhibition of these films is made compulsory under a condition in the exhibitors' license and rental is charged approximately on the basis of 1 p.c. of the average weekly collections. One newsreel and one documentary a week are released in all cinema houses alternately.

Selected documentaries and newsreels are sent to the Indian Missions abroad for non-commercial exhibition and are also used in television circuits in U.S. and U.K.

CHILDREN'S FILMS—The Government of India is taking special interest in the production of films suitable for children. For this propose Children's Film Society was formally inaugurated in Delhi in 1955. The society produces approximately two films a year. The principal aim of the Society is to undertake, sponsor, promote, and co-ordinate the production, distribution and exhibition of films specially suited or of special interest to children or adolescents. The Society is in receipt of a grant-in-aid from the Central Government for the production of films suitable for children. State Committees have been formed in several States to spread the children's film movement. On the recommendation of UNESCO a National Centre for children's films has been formed in India by the Children's Film Society.

FILM ADVISORY BOARD—Government of India had constituted in 1949 a Film Advisory Board to advise the Films Division of

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the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. This body has been formed to recommend documentaries and newsreels produced by the Films Division and by the other private producers for certifying them as "approved films" which are required to be shown at every performance by each and every exhibitor in the country. The F.A.B. also acts as an advisory body to the Films Division as regards matters connected with the production of documentaries.

CENSORSHIP OF FILMS—Under the Cinematograph Act, 1952, as amended by Act of 1957, Central Board of Film Censors is responsible for examining and certifying cinematograph films as suitable for public exhibition. The films certified as suitable for unrestricted public exhibitions are granted 'U' certificates and those certified as suitable for public exhibition restricted to adults (who are over 18 years of age) are given 'A' certificates. The Board consists of a Chairman and six non-official members. The Board has headquarters in Bombay, with regional offices at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

The films are examined by the Examining Committee consisting of a Regional Officer and members of the Advisory Panels which have been constituted at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. Provisions have been made at all stages (examination, revision and appeal) to give an opportunity to the party concerned for representing their views before a decision prejudicial to him is taken. The Central Government have issued under S. 5B of the Act, directions to the Board of Film Censors setting out the principles which will guide in sanctioning films for public exhibition.

TAXATION—The industry is now under the following taxations—*Central Government Taxes*—(1) Import duty of raw films at the rate of 3 pies per foot, plus 5 p.c. surcharge on the total. (2) Import duty on cinematographic equipment at the rate of 5 p.c. *ad valorem* on larger equipments and 10 p.c. on the smaller ones, plus a 5 p.c. surchage. (3) Fees for licence for storage of films from chief inspector of explosives. This fee is leviable in respect of films with nitrocellulose base. (4) Rentals on Government approved films, the showing of which is compulsory. The exhibitors are required to pay rentals ranging from Rs. 5 to Rs. 150 per week on Films Division shorts, (5) Fees for censorship of films at Rs. 40 per 1000 ft. (6)Income tax. *Taxes by States*—(1) *Entertainment tax.* This is a tax on admission. The tax is levied on the slab system except in Bihar and Madhya Pradesh. The rates of tax varies from 25 p.c. to 75 p.c. on the cost of admission, (2) *Theatre Tax*—It is a flat rate tax on each show or performance levied in some States. (3) Sales Tax. (4) Licence fee for operating cinemas and storage of films. (5) Electricity tax. (6) Property tax. *Municipal Taxes*—Octroi Duty and Terminal Taxes. (2) Property taxes and licence fees, etc. (3) Taxes on posters and other advertisements. (4) Licence fees & storage of films including safety base films.

FILM FEDERATION OF INDIA—This has been established to promote commerce in general and in particular, to promote, protect and watch over the interests of the Indian film industry and persons

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thereof; to regulate their method of doing business, to maintain uniformity in rules, regulations and usages of film industry, to settle disputes by arbitration or otherwise; to take all steps for promoting, supporting or opposing legislation or executive action affecting the economic interest of the film industry.

STATE AWARDS FOR FILMS—State Boards for films were instituted in 1954 to encourage production of films of good quality and standard. Apart from certificates of merit on an All-India and regional basis, cash awards are also given to the producers and directors of the award-winning films as follows—

(1) *for the best feature film winning the President's Gold Medal* —Rs. 25,000; (2) *for the second best feature film*—Rs. 12,500; (3) *for the best children's film, winning the Prime Minister's Gold Medal*— Rs. 25,000; (4) for the second best children's film—Rs. 12,500; (5) *for the best documentary, winning the President's Gold Medal*— Rs. 5,000; (6) *for the second best documentary*—Rs. 2,500.

FILM FINANCE CORPORATION AND INSTITUTE—was inaugurated by the Government on 11th April, 1960. It is a state-owned limited company with an authorised capital of Rs. one crore; of this only Rs. 20 lakhs has so far been paid exclusively by the Central Government with headquarters at Bombay. The Corporation will give loans to film producers of modest means. In order to ensure a high standard of films, the Corporation will have right to examine scripts before sanctioning loans. In no case will the Corporation finance the entire expenditure of a film, although its assistance may cover 60 or 70 p.c. of the cost.

Film Institute—is expected to be established shortly by the Government. The institute will impart training in various aspects of film production, such as cinematography, sound engineering, direction, art direction, make-up and costumes, etc.

INDIAN FILMS ABROAD—Indian films have a good demand in the countries of Asia (excepting Japan and China) and East Africa as well as in Egypt, Libya and the West Indies. Between 15 and 20 per cent of the revenue of successful films comes from foreign market. More and more Indian's films are being shown in Soviet Russia and the East European countries. Export of Indian films fetched foreign exchange worth Rs. 1.71 crores in 1954. An Export Promotion Committee for Films has been set up to stimulate exports of Indian films. Indian Films are participating in a number of International Film Festivals and are receiving awards. *Pather Panchali*, *Apur Sansar*, *Jalsagar*, *Call of the mountains* (Documentary), *Radha Krishna* (Documentary) have received high praise from critics of the world.

INDIAN FEATURE FILMS, 1950-1959

	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Hindi ..	115	100	102	97	118	126	123	115	116	121
Gujarati ..	13	6	2	—	—	3	3	—	—	—
Marathi ..	19	16	17	21	18	12	13	14	16	10
Bengali ..	42	38	43	50	48	52	54	54	45	38

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Tamil ..	19	26	32	42	37	46	51	44	61	80
Telegu ..	18	20	25	29	27	24	27	36	36	46
Kannada ..	1	2	1	7	10	15	14	14	11	5
Punjabi ..	4	4	—	3	3	—	—	2	1	—
Malayalam ..	6	7	11	7	8	7	5	7	4	3
Aassamese ..	—	—	—	1	1	1	3	3	2	5
English ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
Persian ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Urdu ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
Oryia ..	—	—	—	—	1	2	—	2	1	1
Sindhi ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—
Short films ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	582

IMPORT OF CINEMA FILMS, EQUIPMENT, ETC.

(in lakhs of Rs.)

	Raw Film		Exposed Film			
	footage	*value* (in Rs.)	*footage*	*value* (in Rs.)	*Sound recording equipment* (in Rs.)	*Projection value* (in Rs.)
1950-51 ..	2,085.38	125.59	145.37	35.79	9.53	61.94
1951-52 ..	1,981.94	135.55	105.96	28.01	17.58	53.79
1952-53 ..	2,479.41	166.27	126.47	39.49	10.70	25.58
1953-54 ..	2,074.64	154.89	108.55	50.39	7.50	21.52
1954-55 ..	2,041.15	151.18	86.44	22.80	4.57	20.19
1955-56 ..	3,009.69	222.16	121.21	35.10	7.46	43.25
1956-57 ..	2,700.69	206.28	158.61	41.24	15.51	51.42
1957 ..	2,713.19	205.36	168.73	45.36	13.10	56.39
1958 ..	2,142.70	164.06	111.13	32.23	5.46	39.45
1959 (upto Oct)	2,624.11	243.07	158.49	34.58	1.40	21.73

FOREIGN EXCHANGE EARNED BY THE INDIAN FILMS

(In Thousands of Rupees)

1954 ..	9,713	1957	..	..	12,817
1955 ..	11,139	1958	..	..	11,309
1956 ..	12,922	1959 (till Sept.)	..	..	12,311

CINEMA CIRCUITS

Central Circuit—M.P., Madhya Bharat, Rajasthan, Ajmer, Bhopal, Vindya Pradesh and East & West Khandesh, Districts of Bombay Presidency.

North Circuit—Delhi, U.P., Punjab, Pepsu, Himachal Pradesh, and Jammu & Kashmir.

Bengal Circuit—West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Orissa, Tripura, Berhampur ((Ganjam), Andaman Islands and Nepal.

South Circuit—Madras, Andhra, Mysore, Travancore-Cochin, Hyderabad and Coorg.

Bombay Circuit—Bombay, Saurashtra and Kutch.

FACTS OF CINEMA IN INDIA

1896 First exhibition of cinema in India by Lumiere Brothers, July 7, 1896.
1907 First cinema house opened in Calcutta by J. F. Madan.
1913 First Indian film, *Harischandra*, produced by D. Phalke of Bombay and released at Bombay on April, 1913.
1917 First Indian film produced in Bengal is *Nala Damayanti* by J. F. Madan.
1918 Indian Cinematograph Act passed.

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1920 Censorship of films started at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.
1921 First picture produced in South India is *Bhishma Pratigna*, by Star of the East Film Co.
1922 Entertainment Tax introduced in Bengal.
1927 Government of India appoints a Cinematograph Enquiry Committee.
1929 First talkie exhibited in India was Universal's *Melody of Love* at Elphinstone Picture Palace, Calcutta.
1931 *Alam Ara*, the first Indian talkie by Imperial Film Studio, Bombay released on 14th March, 1951. The second talkie *Shirin Farhad* by Madan Theatre, Ltd., Calcutta.
1931 Prabhat Studio's *Sairendhri* is the first Indian colour film, though coloured in Germany. First cine-colour picture done in India was Imperial's *Krishan Kanya*. *Karma* is the first Indian-English film (talkie) by Himansu Rai, the founder of Bombay Talkies but produced mainly in England under European supervision.
1932 Background music introduced for the first time in Chandidas, a Bengali film.
1934 Playback-system introduced for the first time in Bhagyachakra, a Bengali film.
1939 Silver Jubilee of the Film Industry in India.
1940 *Court Dancer* is the first full length Indian-English sound film made in this country under purely Indian supervision.
1943 Information Films of India set up by the Government of India.
1949 Appointment of the Film Enquiry Committee by the Government of India.
1949 Censorship of films was included in the Union List in the new Constitution.—Pictures were classified 'A' (for adults only) and 'U' (universal exhibition).
1951 Central Board of Film Censors at Bombay was established on 15th January.
1952 First International Festival sponsored by the Government of India in Bombay on January 24, 1952.
1954 Film Awards inaugurated by the Government of India.
1955 Film Seminar inaugurated at Delhi.
1956 Silver Jubilee of Indian Talkie celebrated throughout India.
1960 First colour cartoon film for children by the Films Division "Banyan Tree" was released on May 20.

ACADEMY AWARDS

'Oscar' is the supreme annual award of the *American Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences*. These coveted Statuettes were first presented on 26th May, 1929, for the leading men and women in various branches of picture-making industry.

	Film of the Year	*Actor of the Year*	*Actress of the Year*
1928	Wings (*Paramount*)	Emil Jennings	Janet Gaynor
1929	Broadway Melody (*M.G.M.*)	Warner Baxter	Mary Pickford
1930	All Quiet on the Western Front (*Universal*)	George Arliss	Norma Shearer
1931	Cimarron (*R.K.O.*)	Leonel Barymore	Marie Dresler
1932	Grant Hotel (*M.G.M.*)	Fredric March	Helen Hayes
1933	Cavalcade (*Fox*)	Charles Laughton	Katherine Hepburn
1934	It happened one night (*Columbia*)	Clark Gable	Claudette Colbert
1935	Mutiny on the bounty (*M.G.M.*)	Victor McLaglen	Bette Davies
1936	Great Ziegfeld (*M.G.M.*)	Paul Muni	Luise Rainer
1937	Life of Emile Zola (*Warner*)	Spencer Tracy	Luise Rainer
1938	You can't take it with you (*Columbia*)	Spencer Tracy	Bette Davies
1939	Gone with the Wind (*Selznick*)	Robert Donat	Vivien Leigh
1940	Rebecca (*Selznick*)	James Stewart	Ginger Rogers
1941	How Green was My Valley (*20th Century*)	Gary Cooper	Joan Fontaine
1942	Mrs. Miniver (*M.G.M.*)	James Cagney	Greer Garson
1943	Casablanca (*Warenr*)	Paul Lukas	Jennifer Jones
1944	Going My Way (*Paramount*)	Bing Crosby	Ingrid Bergman
1945	Lost Week End (*Paramount*)	Ray Milland	Joan Crawford
1946	Best Years of Our Lives (*R.K.O.*)	Frederic March	Oliva de Havilland
1947	Gentleman's Agreement (*20th Century*)	Ronald Colman	Loretta Young

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1948	Hamlet (*Arthur Rank*)	Sir L. Olivier	Jane Wyman
1949	All the King's Men (*Columbia*)	Broderick Crawford	Oliva de Havilland
1950	All About Eve (*20th Century-Fox*)	Jose Ferrer	Judy Holliday
1951	An American in Paris (*M.G.M.*)	Humphery Bogart	Vivien Leigh
1952	Greatest Show on Earth (*Paramount*)	Gary Cooper	Shirley Booth
1953	From Here to Eternity (*Columbia*)	William Holden	Audrey Hepburn
1954	On the Water Front (*Columbia*)	Marlon Brando	Grace Kelly
1955	Marty (*United Artists*)	Ernest Borgnine	Anna Magnani
1956	Around the World in 80 days (*Michael Todd Co. Ltd.*)	Yul Brynner	Ingrid Bergman
1957	The Bridge on the river Kwai (*Columbia*)	Alec Guiness	Joanne Woodward
1958	Gigi (M-G-M)	David Niven	Susan Hayward
1959	Ben Hur	Charlton Heston	Simone Signoret

OSCAR AWARDS, 1959

(Awards by the Academy of Motion Picture Arts & Sciences, U.S.A)

Best Picture—*Ben Hur.*
Best Actress—Simone Signoret in *Room at the top.*
Best Director—William Wyler in *Ben Hur.*
Best Actor—Charlton Heston in *Ben Hur.*
Best supporting Actor—Hugh Griffith in *Ben Hur.*
Best supporting Actress—Shally Winters in *Diary of Anne Frank.*
Best Foreign Film (non-American)—*Black Drphens* by Mareel Camas.
Best Screen Adaptation—Neil Paterson.
Short Documentary Subject—*Glass* (Dutch).
Best Short Subject—*Golden Fish* by Jacques-yves Couesteau.
Best Documentary Feature Production—*Serengeti Shall not Die* (Germany).

STATE FILM AWARDS, 1959

All India Awards : Feature Films.
President's gold medal—*Apur Sansar* (*Bengali's* (Producer—Rs. 20,000 and Director —Rs. 5,000).
All India certificate of merit : *Heera Moti* (*Hindi*) Producer—Rs. 10,000, Director— Rs. 2,500.
Third Prize : *Sujata* (*Hindi*).

Children's film.
Banyan Deer (*English*). All India certificate of merit.

Documentary Films :
Kathakali : All India certificate of merit and Director—Rs. 500.
Mayurakshi : All India certificate of merit.

Regional Awards : President's silver medal for respective languages.
Anari (*Hindi*).
Nammina Bantu (*Telugu*).
Pubarun (*Assamese*).
Bagavirivinai (*Tamil*).

Certificates of Merit.
Lajwanti (*Hindi*).
Karigar (*Hindi*).
Dhakti Jaoo (*Marhathi*).
Bicharak (*Bengali*).
Veera Pandiya Kattabomman (*Tamil*).
Kalyana Parisu (*Tamil*).
Maa Inti Mahalakshmi (*Telugu*).
Jaya Bheri (*Telugu*).
Jagat Joythi Basaweswara (*Kannada*).
Chaturangam (*Malayalam*).

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AFRO-ASIAN FILM FESTIVAL, CAIRO 1960

Golden Eagle (for feature film)—Prince of Sammarkand (*Russia*).
Golden Eagle (for short film)—Taj Mahal (*Indian*).
Silver Eagle (for acting)—Sivaji Ganesan in *Veerapandiya Kattabomman*.
Silver Eagle (for music)—Ramanathan " " " "
Silver Eagle (for acting)—Magtla (Egyptian actress) for her performance in the film *Kaiss and Laila* and *Yan Li Tchun* (Chinese actress) for her part in *Five Golden Flowers* ; Wang Chia Ni (Chinese Film Director).
12 certificates of merit for performances in full length feature including one to the Indian actress Padmini, heroine of *Veerapandiya Kattabomman*.

WEST BERLIN FILM FESTIVAL, 1960

International Film Critics' Prize and International Catholic Film Organisation Prize—The Angry. Silence (British).
Best Feature Film Prize by West Berlin City Government suitable for Youth—Inherit the Wind (U.S.).
Golden Bear Award for best feature film—Le Lazarillo de Tormes (Spain).
Silver Bear Award for 2nd feature film—Les Jeux de l' Amour (French).
Silver Bear Award for best actor—Frederic March in "Inherit the Wind" (U.S.).
Silver Bear Award for best actress—Juliette Mazniel in German Film "Kirmes".
Silver Bear Award for best direction—Jean-Luc Godard (France).
Silver Bear of Berlin for best actress—Miss Stirtley Macalaine in *As any girl (U.S.A.)*.
Silver Bear of Berlin for best actor—Mr. Jean Gabin (France) in Archimede, the Vagabond (*French*).
Silver Bear of Berlin for short documentaries—Radha and Krishna (*India*).

VENICE FILM AWARDS, 1960

Volpi Cup for best actor—John Mills (England) in 'Tunes'.
Volpi Cup for best actress—Shirley Mclaine (U.S.) in 'Apartment'.
Golden Lion of St. Mark for best film—La Passage Du Rhin (French) directed by Andre Cayatte.

WORLD POPULATION

There are about 2,900 million people in the world, and some 48 million more are added every year the population of the world as a whole is increasing at an annual rate of about 17 per thousand or 1.7 p.c. per year. This rate represents an increase of about 48.5 million every year according to the U.N. Demographic Year Book of 1959.

The present world birth rate of 35 per thousand adds some 100 million babies to the population every year, while the estimated death rate subtracts 57 million. This leaves a net addition of over 48 million to the population of the globe.

Africa is the most prolific continent, with a birthrate of 45 per million but as regions South East Asia and Tropical and Southern Africa go one better 46 per million.

At the other end of the scale, Europe's birthrate is only 19 per milion.

Japan, where prewar birthrate was among the highest, now has one of the lowest, 18 per thousand.

More than half the world's inhabitants live in four countries :

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China (660 million), India (403 million), the Soviet Union (209 million), and the U.S.A. (178 million).

Children born in Norway, Sweden and Holland have the greatest expectancy of life ; girls born in those countries can expect to live upto 74 or more and boys to 71.

India remains at the bottom of the scale with a life expectancy of 32, but it is one of the few areas where men live longer than women.

People are tending to get married younger in industrialized countries and older in others, the world average is 24 for women and 27 for men.

The "baby boom" which followed World War II reached its peak in 1946 and 1947.

WORLD POPULATION

(*In millions*)

1920	.. 1810	1940	.. 2246	1958 ..	2858
1930	.. 2013	1950	.. 2494	1958 (Density)	21

POPULATION BY CONTINENTS, 1958

(*In millions*)

Africa	.. 231	Asia	.. 1591	Oceania	.. 15.8
America	.. 390	Europe (Ex. USSR)	420	USSR	

POPULATION OF SOME COUNTRIES

Africa	
Ghana (1948) ..	41,11,450
Union of S. Africa	1,26,71,452
United Arab Republic (1957) ..	2,29,96,904
Algeria (1954) ..	91,44,971
Nigera (1953) ..	2,97,30,874
Rohodesia & Nysaland (1956) ..	13,14,840
North America	
Canada (1956) ..	1,60,80,791
Mexico (1950 ..	2,57,91,017
United States (1950) ..	15,13,25,798
Argantina (1947)	1,58,93,827
Brazil (1950) ..	5,19,76,357
Asia	
Burma (1953) ..	29,40,704
Ceylon (1953) ..	80,97,895
China (1953) ..	58,26,03,417
Malaya Fed. (1957)	62,78,758
India (1951) ..	35,67,41,669
Iran (1956) ..	1,89,54,704
Japan (1955) ..	8,92,75,529
Korea (1944) ..	2,51,20,174
Pakistan (1951) ..	7,58,42,164
Philippines (1958)	2,37,49,125
Thailand (1956) ..	2,00,95,130
Europe	
France (1954) ..	4,28,43,520
E. Germany (1950)	1,71,99,098
W. Germany (1956)	5,09,74,500
Italy (1951) ..	4,71,58,738
Poland (1950) ..	2,50,08,179
Spain (1950) ..	2,79,76,755
Great Britain (1951)	5,02,25,224
Oceania	
Australia (1954)	89,86,530
New Zealand (1958)	21,74,062
USSR	
USSR (1959) ..	20,88,26,650

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BIRTH AND DEATH RATES

(*per* 1000 *population*)

	Birth rate	*Death rate*	*Infant Mortality*		*Expectation of Life*	
					Male	*Female*
Canada (1959)	27.9	8.1	30.2	1950-52	66.33	70.83
Mexico (1959)	47.0	11.6	73.7	1940	37.92	39.79
U. S. (1959)	24.1	9.4	26.4	1957	66.3	72.5
Argentina (1959)	22.6	8.4	61.1	1947	56.9	61.4
Burma (1955)	50	35	166.3	..	..	..
India (1958)	40	20	150	..	..	..
China (1957)	34	11	..	..	..	..
Japan (1958)	18.0	7.5	34.6	1958	64.98	69.58
France (1959)	18.3	11.2	25.2	1952-56	65.04	71.15
Ger. (F. R.) 1959	17.6	10.8	34.3	1949-51	64.56	68.48
Italy (1959)	18.4	9.3	44.9	1950-53	63.75	67.25
Spain (1958)	21.9	8.7	47.4	1950	58.74	63.50
Sweden (1958)	14.2	9.6	15.8	1956	70.92	74.35
Switzerland (1958)	17.6	9.5	22.2	1948-53	66.36	70.85
U. Kingdom (1958)	66.8	11.7	23.3	..	..	..
Australia (1958)	22.6	8.5	20.5	1953-55	67.14	72.75

BANKS IN INDIA

INDIAN BANKING SYSTEM—India's banking system is one of the most highly developed aspects of Indian economy. Banking is operated along both indigenous and western lines. Uunder western lines, we have the *Reserve Bank of India* which is the Central Bank of the country, *State Bank of India, Indian Joint Stock Commercial Banks* (scheduled and non-scheduled), and *Exchange Banks.*

The indigenous system comprises numerous indigenous bankers, such as, shrofts, seths, mahajans and the village money landers, such as Baniya, Sahukar and Khatri. In addition to these two systems of Indian Banking, there are also P.O. Savings Banks, Co-operative Banks and Land Mortgage Banks.

The Indian Joint Stock Commercial Banks are controlled and regulated by the Reserve Bank of India under the power vested to it by the Indian Banking Companies Act of 1949. Exchange banks finance India's foreign trade. Co-operative Banks and Land Mortgage Banks mainly undertake rural banking functions.

Banking Company—Under the Banking Companies Act, 1949, a 'banking company' has been defined as a company carrying on the business of banking in India. A banking company is required to use

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as part of its name the word 'bank', 'banker' or 'banking' and a non-banking company is prohibited from using any of these words in its name.

CLASSIFICATION OF BANKS—The Reserve Bank of India classified banks as follows—

(i) Reserve Bank of India.
(ii) Indian Commercial Banks comprising—
(*a*) State Bank of India and other Indian Scheduled Banks.
(*b*) Indian non-scheduled Banks.
(*c*) State and Central Co-operative Banks.
(iii) Foreign banks whose registered offices are located outside the Indian Union.

Scheduled Banks—Banks which carry on business of banking in India and which (*a*) have paid up capital and reserves of an aggregate, real or exchangeable, value of not less than Rs. 5 lakhs (*b*) are either companies as defined in Sec. 3 of the Companies Act 1956 or corporations or companies incorporated by or under any law in force in any place outside India or institution notified by the Central Government in this behalf and (*c*) satisfy the Reserve Bank that the affairs are not being conducted in a manner detrimental to the interests of their depositors are eligible for inclusion in the 2nd Schedule to the Reserve Bank of India Act 1934 and when so included are known as 'scheduled banks.' The scheduled banks are further classified into (*a*) Indian Scheduled Banks (class AI) and (*b*) foreign scheduled banks.

Number of Banks—The following is the table of Banks in India as classified by the Reserve Bank of India—

	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
I. Indian Commercial Banks					
(i) Scheduled (AI) ..	72	72	74	77	78
(ii) Non-Scheduled—					
A2 ..	62	58	55	47	39
B ..	180	170	163	151	147
C ..	98	93	76	84	76
D ..	25	12	4	2	2
Total of (i) & (ii) ..	437	405	372	355	342
II. Foreign Banks					
(i) Scheduled ..	17	17	17	16	16
(ii) Non-Scheduled— ..	1	1	..	..	..
Total of I & II ..	455	423	389	371	358
III. Co-operative Banks					
(*a*) State Co-operative ..	23	24	23	21	22
(*b*) Central Co-operative Banks ..	485	478	451	418	408

(1) RESERVE BANK OF INDIA

The Reserve Bank of India came into existence on April 1, 1935. The Bank was originally constituted as a shareholders' bank with a

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share capital of Rs. 5 crores, divided into 5-lakh fully paid-up shares of Rs. 100 each. It was converted into State-owned bank by the Reserve Bank (Transfer to Public Ownership) Act, 1948.

The Directors and the Governors of the Bank are either nominated or appointed by the Central Government. The Central Board of the Bank consists of a Governor and three Deputy Governors appointed by the Central Government, four Directors (nominated by the Local Boards), six other Directors and one Government official. There are also four Local Boards, each consisting of five members nominated by the Government.

Main Functions of the Bank—The primary functions of the Reserve Bank are (1) issuing of paper currency (2) acting as a banker to the Governments (3) controlling credit and advances given by the commercial banks (4) acting as a bank of accomodation or lender of last resort (5) maintenance of the external value of rupee (6) provision of agricultural credit and (7) collection and publication of monetary and financial information (8) with the exception of one rupee notes which are issued by the Ministry of Finance, the entire note issue function is vested with the Reserve Bank. (8) As Government's banker, it receives and makes payments on behalf of the Government, remits funds, and buys and sells foreign currencies for it. (9) It manages public debt and raises loans on behalf of the Government of India. (10) As a controller of credit, the Reserve Bank exercises powers of supervision as well as control over other bankers. This power of supervision and control have been greatly increased since the passing of the Indian Banking Companies Act of 1949 and its amendment of 1956.

RESERVE BANK OF INDIA : ISSUE DEPARTMENT

Statement of Liabilities and Assets : Lakhs of Rupees

Average of Friday figures	*Notes in circulation*	*Liabilities Notes in Banking Dept*	*total Liabilities (total notes issued or (Assets)*
1950-51 ..	1,163,21	17,19	1,180,40
1955-56 ..	1,339,39	17,08	1,356,47
1956-57 ..	1,475,77	18,75	1,494,52
1957-58 ..	1,529,36	23,18	1,552,53
1958-59 ..	1,593,88	19,34	1,613,21
1959-60 ..	1,730,90	19,86	1,750,77

ASSETS

Average of Friday figure	*Gold coin & bullion*	*Foreign Securities*	*Rupee coin*	*Rupee coin Securities*
1950-51 ..	40,02	624,70	57,21	458,47
1955-56 ..	40,02	656,52	106,87	553.06

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1956-57 ..	40,02	545,61	115,93	755,22
1947-58 ..	117,76	329,65	130,06	975,06
1958-59 ..	117,76	182,04	133,99	1,179,42
1959-60 ..	117,76	167,62	131,50	1,333,88

RESERVE BANK OF INDIA : BANKING DEPARTMENT

Statement of Liabilities and Assets : Lakhs of Rupees

LIABILITIES	*Total deposits*	*Other liabilities*	*or assets Total liabilities*
1950-51 ..	290,82	28,14	318,97
1955-56 ..	152,04	45,59	297,64
1956-57 ..	143,81	101,21	254,02
1957-58 ..	258,27	149,36	407,63
1958-59 ..	284,67	156,77	441,44
1959-60 ..	281,83	168,18	450,01

ASSETS	*Notes & coins*	*Balances held abroad*	*Loans etc. to Govts.*	*Other Loans & Advances*	*Bills purchased & discounted*	*Investments*	*Other assets*
1950-51 ..	17,31	207,70	2,37	6,77	3,05	76,72	5,06
1955-56 ..	17,21	66,96	1,73	36,99	9,78	49,36	15,61
1956-57 ..	18,91	64,77	4,89	85,34	5,69	51,82	13,60
1957-58 ..	23,30	40,47	32,90	77,91	4,81	213,92	14,32
1958-59 ..	19,41	25,57	28,23	65,83	6,18	284,49	11,43
1959-60 ..	19,94	28,97	25,53	88,92	15,54	258,90	12,22

(*Reports on Currency & Finance.* 1959-60).

(2) INDIAN BANKS

(a) State Bank of India

The State Bank of India was the outcome of the recommendation of the Committee of Direction of the All India Rural Credit Survey appointed by the Reserve Bank of India in August 1951. The Committee recommended the setting up of a State Bank as one strong integrated State-partnered commercial banking institution with an effective machinery of branches spread over the whole country for stimulating banking development by providing vastly extended remittance facilities for co-operative and other banks and following a policy which would be in effective consonance with national policies adopted by Government without departing from the canons of sound business. The Committee was of the view that the State Bank of India should be formed by taking over the Imperial Bank of India and other State-associated banks. Accordingly the State Bank of India Act was passed in 1955.

The State Bank of India came into being on July 1, 1955, when the entire undertaking of the Imperial Bank of India was transferred to it. The State Bank has an authorised capital of Rs. 20 crores and an issued capital of Rs. 5,62,50,000, which stands allotted

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to it in lieu of the shares of the Imperial Bank of India. The Reserve Bank of India holds at least 55 per cent of the issued share capital and may transfer the balance of 45 per cent of the State Bank shares to private shareholders, preference being given to the existing shareholders of the Imperial Bank of India. The erstwhile shareholders have been paid compensation at the rate of Rs. 1,765-10-0 for every fully paid-up share and Rs. 431-12-4 for every partly paid share.

The management of the Bank vests in Central Board consisting of (1) a Chairman and a Vice-Chairman appointed by the Central Government in consultation with the Reserve Bank, (2) not more than two Managing Directors, if any, to be appointed by the Central Board with the approval of the Central Government, (3) six directors elected by the shareholders, other than the Reserve Bank, whose names are entered in the various branch registers, (4) eight directors nominated by the Central Government in consultation with the Reserve Bank to represent territorial and economic interests, (5) one director nominated by the Central Government and (6) one director nominated by the Reserve Bank.

The State Bank continues to provide credit to industry, trade and commerce as the Imperial Bank used to do. An important statutory function assigned to the State Bank is the promotion of banking development through the establishment of an effective machinery of branches spread over the whole country ; the number of branches to be opened within a period of five years or such extended period as the Central Government might fix, being 400. It will provide considerably larger remittance facilities and attempt to mobilise available rural savings. Later, with an expanded organisation and with development in warehousing and marketing, the State Bank is expected to be a powerful agency for enlarging the supply of rural credit. The Reserve Bank will continue to provide assistance for the extension of rural credit through the apex co-operative banks, as at present

The State Bank shall, if so required by the Reserve Bank, act as agent of the Reserve Bank at all places in India where it has a branch and where there is no branch of the Banking Department of the Reserve Bank. With the sanction of the Central Government, the State Bank may also enter into negotiations for acquiring the business, including the assets and liabilities of any banking institution.

LIABILITIES AND ASSETS OF THE STATE BANK OF INDIA

(*In lakhs of rupees*)

	Paid-up Capital	*Reserves*	*Total Deposits*	*Cash in hand*	*Cash in Banks*	*Investments (Govt. Securities)*
1955 ..	5,63	6,35	219,80	3,42	25,96	104,96
1956 ..	9.63	6,38	235,47	3,39	24,39	92,59
1957 ..	5,63	6,63	366,68	10,24	29,28	170,18
1958 ..	5,63	7,00	478,68	11.34	44,13	268.37
1959 ..	5,63	7,20	582,11	14,78	50,05	362,03

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	Other investments	Money at call & short notice	Loans & Advances	Bills discounted & purchased	Net profit	No. of offices
1955 ..	12,02	1,53	89,01	16,80	1,36	484
1956 ..	14,28	1,07	107,42	32,74	1,56	538
1957 ..	13,25	2,00	154,61	18,87	1,87	622
1958 ..	16,19	2,11	158,56	13,50	1,90	712
1959 ..	15,90	2,47	152,25	14,63	1,87	823

(*Statistical Tables relating to banks in India*, 1959).

(b) Indian Scheduled Banks

Indian scheduled banks are exclusive of the State Bank of India and major exchange banks.

Known also as the Joint-Stock Banks, they are sub-divided into four classes, namely (*a*) those with a paid-up Capital and Reserves of Rs. 5 lakhs and over (*b*) those with a paid-up Capital and Reserves between one lakh and less than Rs. 5 lakhs, and two other divisions with less capital and reserves.

Indian Scheduled Banks are mainly commercial banks. These Banks provide India's internal banking facilities. They receive deposits or mortgages, discount local bills, open cash credit accounts, advance loans against stock exchange securities, grain or cloth, buy and sell shares and transact other banking business. They keep the valuables of their customers in safe custody and render other services to their customers. The agricultural business of these banks is small and is generally confined to big landholders and planters.

LIABILITIES & ASSETS OF INDIAN SCHEDULED BANKS

(*In lakhs of rupees*)

	No. of banks	Paid-up capital	Reserves	Total deposits	Cash in hand	Cash at Banks
1955 ..	71	27,22	20,38	657,47	35,49	53,31
1956 ..	71	27,36	20,78	725,33	36,95	53,52
1957 ..	73	29,11	23,22	857,12	38,96	70,10
1958 ..	76	29,94	22,89	979,51	43,17	67,68
1959 ..	77	30,52	24,11	1,121,45	47,63	76,75

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	Investments (Govt. Securities)	*Other Investments*	*Money at call or short notice*	*Loans & Advances*	*Bills discounted & purchased*	*Net profits*	*No. of offices*
1955 ..	231,24	37,98	4,41	308,75	82,61	5,24	2,307
1956 ..	231,86	38,57	8,90	372,26	106,03	6,70	2,359
1957 ..	224,13	55,35	37,43	432,16	94,18	7,52	2,584
1958 ..	321,52	60,12	30,02	468,23	100,72	6,60	2,851
1959 ..	355,65	76,43	18,98	548,60	127,40	6,84	3,037

(*Statistical Tables relating to banks in India*, 1959).

(c) FOREIGN SCHEDULED EXCHANGE BANKS

The main business of the Exchange Banks is financing the foreign trade of India. The Exchange Banks are all incorporated outside India. They purchase bills in foreign currency, grant loans against shipping and other documents. They also play some little part in the financing of inland trade, mainly for the movement of goods for export or of goods imported. But now they are extending their operations in the interior of the country and are receiving deposits also on saving and fixed accounts and are engaged in financing the internal trade of India. Because the Banking Companies Act of 1949 requires banks to maintain 75 per cent of the liabilities in the form of assets inside India, the exchange bank's internal financial operations are likely to increase.

The Exchange Banks furnish the immediate link with the outside world of trade and commerce. Primarily the exchange banks specialise in the finance of foreign trade and their beginning dates back to the Oriental Banking Corporation in 1842.

LIABILITIES ASSETS OR FOREIGN SCHEDULED BANKS

(*In lakhs of rupees*)

	No. of Banks	*Total Deposits*	*Cash in hand*	*Cash in Banks*	*Investments in Govt. Securities*	*Other investments*
1955	17	194,46	3,22	14,58	46,01	3,66
1956	17	187,24	2,81	15,02	39,27	2,87
1957	17	204,14	2,62	17,53	38,91	4,39
1958	16	195,76	2,57	12,58	44,74	2,55
1959	16	226,21	2,08	15,59	42,93	2,35

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	Money at call or short notice	Loans & Advances	Bills discounted & Purchased	Net profits	No. of offices
1955 ..	5,72	136,07	31,88	1,68	67
1956 ..	4,39	161,22	40,64	1,66	67
1957 ..	12,07	143,87	50,42	1,92	67
1958 ..	11,39	134,73	25,36	1,03	66
1959 ..	14,30	140,99	30,10	1,29	66

LIABILITIES AND ASSETS OF TOTAL SCHEDULED BANKS

(*State Bank of India, Indian and Foreign Scheduled Banks*)

(*In lakhs of rupees*)

	No. of	Paid-up Capital	Reserves	Total Deposits	Reserves in hand	Cash in banks	Investments (Govt. Securities)
1955	89	32,85	26,73	1,071,73	42,13	93,85	382,21
1956	89	32,99	27,16	1,148,07	43,15	92,93	363,72
1957	91	34,74	29,85	1,427,94	51,82	116,93	433,22
1958	93	35,57	29,89	1,653,95	57,08	123,86	634,63
1959	94	36,15	31,31	1,930,77	64,49	142,77	760,61

	Other Investments	Money call short notice	Loans & Advances	Bills discounted & purchased	Net profit	No. of offices
1955	53,66	11,66	533,83	131,29	8,28	2,858
1956	55,72	14,36	640,90	179,41	9,92	2,966
1957	72,99	51,50	730,64	163,47	11,31	3,273
1958	78,86	43,52	761,49	139,58	9,53	3,629
1959	94,68	35,75	841,84	172,13	10,00	3,926

(*Statistical Tables relating to banks in India*, 1959).

(d) NON-SCHEDULED BANKS

Non-Scheduled banks have been classified into four classes—

(1) A2 Banks—which have paid-up Capital and reserves of Rs. 5 lakhs or above, but which have not been included in the 2nd Schedule to the Reserve Bank of Indian Act 1934.

(2) B Banks—paid-up capital and reserves between Rs. one lakh and Rs. 5 lakhs each.

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(3) C Banks—paid-up capital and reserves between Rs. 50,000 and Rs. one lakh each.

(4) D Banks—paid-up capital and reserves of less than Rs. 50,000.

LIABILITIES AND ASSETS OF TOTAL NON-SCHEDULED BANKS

	No. of banks	*Paid-up Capital*	*Reserves*	*Total Deposits*	*Cash in hand*	*Cash in banks*
1955	366	8,11	4,67	70,13	6,48	3,79
1956	334	7,64	4,44	73,75	6,60	3,46
1957	298	6,09	3,38	51,81	4,79	3,12
1958	278	5,46	2,29	47,59	4,40	3,64
1959	264	5,03	2,33	51,13	4,57	4,14

	Investments (Govt. Securities)	*Investments (others)*	*Loans & Advances*	*Bills discounted & purchased*	*Net profit*	*No. of offices*
1955	25,24	5,61	37,32	2,09	63	1,142
1956	25,67	6,28	39,82	2,72	71	1,101
1957	13,77	3,75	33,16	1,55	48	947
1958	11,57	4,26	28,93	1,38	42	862
1959	11,17	4,95	30,51	1,28	45	827

TOTAL ASSETS AND LIABILITIES OF SCHEDULED AND NON-SCHEDULED BANKS

	No. of Banks	*Paid-up Capital*	*Reserves*	*Total deposits*	*Cash in hand*	*Cash in Banks*
1955	455	40,96	31,40	1,141,86	48,61	97,64
1956	423	40,63	31,60	1,222,09	49,75	96,39
1957	389	40,83	33,23	1,479,75	56,61	120,05
1958	371	41,03	32,18	1,701,54	61,48	127,50
1959	358	41,18	33,64	1,981,90	69,06	146,91

	Govt. Investments	*Other investments*	*Loans & Advances*	*Bills discounted & Purchased*	*Net profit*	*No. of offices*
1955	407,45	59,27	571,15	133,38	8,91	4,000
1956	389,30	62,00	680,72	182,13	10,63	4,065

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1957	446,99	76,74	763,80	165,02	11,79	4,220
1958	646,20	83,12	790,42	140,96	9,95	4,491
1959	771,78	99,63	872,35	173,41	10,45	4,753

(*Statistical Tables relating to banks in India*, 1959).

INDIGENOUS BANKS

A large part of India's credit is absorbed by agriculture, small-scale manufacturing and retail trade. Few such borrowers are able to obtain credit from either scheduled or non-scheduled banks and must turn to less strict sources of credit, such as indigenous bankers, money lenders, loan offices, mutual aid societies or co-operatives.

The indigenous bankers are those who carry on banking business according to traditional Indian methods. They are known as *Shroffs, Sahukers, Nidhis, Chettiyars.* The Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee defines an indigenous banker or bank as an individual or private firm receiving deposits and dealing in hundis or lending money. Those who do not receive deposits are to be known as money lenders. Their business is generally a family concern. They supply their own capital. Some of them also accept deposits from the public. Their main function is to grant loans against the security of gold or ornaments, Government Securities, etc. They grant loans to village money-lenders, *banias* and small artisans. They finance movement of agricultural crops from one part of the country to another by drawing hundis or internal bills of exchange. They also discount hundies. Indigenous bankers are generally divided into three categories—(1) Those who confine their business in banking proper, (2) those who are principally traders or merchants but employ surplus funds in banking business and (3) those who are both bankers and traders and cannot be easily classified as pricipally, bankers or pricipally, traders. The indigenous bankers are found to render valuable services in connection with financing of internal trade and middle-sized and small industries and inland remittance works.

LAND MORTGAGE BANKS

The Co-operative Societies and banks cannot grant long-term-loans to their members, because the principle of co-operative lending demands that loans should be advanced on personal credit of its members. It is not possible to grant long-term advances on personal security alone. The Land mortgage banks therefore supply long-term credit to the cultivator who offers his land as a security. Land Mortgage Banks have been started in all States since 1920. Land Mortgage Banks give long-term loans to their members for the redemption of their debts, for undertaking permanent improvements on their lands and for purchasing new plots of land.

Land Mortgage Banks have been started under the auspices of the co-operative movement in the Punjab, Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam, but the beginning is very small.

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IMPORTANT BANKING DEVELOPMENTS

Banking Companies Act—The main provisions of the Banking Companies Act of 1949 are as follows—(a) minimum requirements relating to paid up capital and reserves of a banking company have been fixed. The Act states that the paid-up capital and reserves of an Indian bank must not be less than Rs. 5 lakhs if it has places of business in more than one State and Rs. 10 lakhs if such bank has an office in Bombay and or in Calcutta. Every banking company should transfer to its reserve fund at least 20 per cent of the profit made until the reserve fund is equal to the paid-up capital. To ensure liquidity of assets of banks, the Acts requires every banking company to maintains in cash, gold or approved securities an amount not less than 20 p.c. of the total of its time and demand deposits. The Act checks effectively monopoly control over a banking company by a small group of financiers or promoters with the aid of the provision that voting rights of any share holder should not exceed 5 per cent of the total voting rights of all shareholders. The Act prevents bank from starting subsidary companies and puts serious limitations on the activities of banks connected with speculative trade or manufacturing business. The Act prohibits interlocking of directorates among banks and provides an effective safeguard against directors and managers of banks making use of the resources of the banks for promoting their own concerns. The Acts empowers the Reserves Bank to inspect the books of accounts of the banks. Reserve Bank can also call for periodic or any *ad hoc* statements from the banks. The Reserve Bank has also been vested with powers of qualitative and selective credit controls under Act 1949. The Banking Companies Act of 1949 was amended in 1950, 1956 and 1959. 1956 Amendment Act empowered the Reserve Bank to regulate the remuneration and appointment of the bank executives occupying superior posts, to appoint observers to attend Board meeting of scheduled banks and to obtain information over a wider range than had been possible hitherto. 1959 Amendment enables banks to form susidiary companies for carrying out banking business outside India, extends Reserve Bank's powers of inspection of banks to the foreign branches and foreign subsidiaries of Indian banks. There are also other restrictions.

ALL-INDIA RURAL CREDIT SURVEY COMMITTEE'S REPORT—An important development in the field of banking was the publication in 1954 of the General Report of the Committee of Direction of All-India Rural Credit Survey appointed by the Reserve Bank of India in August, 1951. The Committee looks up to the Co-operative Movement as a potent force in the country's economic development; and the integrated scheme of rural credit envisaged by it is based on State partnership at different levels, full co-operation between credit and other activities, and administration through adequately trained personal. The Committee has recommended a major r-organisation of co-operative credit and agricultural marketing and the establishment of a "State-associated" sector of commercial banking for the benefit of the rural areas, more particularly the small cultivator and

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the handicraftsman. Among other things, it has proposed, for the purpose, the creation of the five National Funds, two of which are to be instituted under the Reserve Bank of India, formation of National Co-operative Development and Warehousing Board, the establishment of a State Bank and the training of personnel for carrying on the programmes of rural development.

NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL CREDIT FUNDS—One of the important recommendations of the Rural Credit Committee relates to the creation of two National Funds under the Reserve Bank of India for the orderly financing of the proposed reorganisation of the co-operative movement. The Reserve Bank of India (Amendment) Act passed by Parliament in April, 1955 authorised the Reserve Bank to set up these two funds, *viz., National Agricultural Credit (Long-term Operations) Fund* with an initial sum of Rs. 10 crores and *National Agricultural Credit (Stabilisation) Fund.* The Reserve Bank constituted the National Agricultural Credit (*Long-Term Operations*) Fund, on February 8, 1956. The Long-Term Operations Fund has been established for making (*i*) *long-term* loans and advances to State Governments for a maximum period of 20 years to enable them to subscribe directly or indirectly to the share capital of co-operative credit institutions, (*ii*) *medium-term* loans (between 15 months and 5 years) to State co-operative banks for agricultural purposes, (*iii*) *long-term* loans and advances to central land mortgage banks upto a maximum period of 20 years, (*iv*) purchases of debentures of central Land Mortgage Banks by the Reserve Bank of India. *The Stabilization Fund* is to be applied exclusively for making *medium-term* loans and advances to State co-operative banks to enable them to convert their short-term credit into medium-term credit.

TRAINING IN BANKING—(1) Bankers' Training College was opened at Bombay on the 14th September, 1954 by the Reserve Bank of India for imparting training in practical banking to supervisory staff of commercial banks. Students are trained in all aspects of banking and a dummy bank operates in the institution to give more practical work to them.

(2) Co-operative Training Centre has been opened in Poona for training workers of the co-operative banks in India.

(3) Baroda University has opened training course in banking at Baroda. The course is meant for graduates in banking who wish to take banking as a profession.

WAREHOUSING IN INDIA—The Rural Credit Survey Committee set up by the Reserve Bank of India in 1951 recommended that a National Co-operative Development and Warehousing Board and an All India Warehousing Corporation should be established by statute and the same statute should provide for formation of State Warehousing Corporation. As a result of this, *Agricultural Prduce (Development and Warehousing) Corporation Act* 1956 was passed. The Board was established in September 1956. The authorised capital of the Central Warehousing Corporation is Rs. 20 crores divided into two lak shares of the face value of Rs.

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1,000 each. The functions of the Board are to plan and promote, among other things, programmes for marketing, storage and warehousing of agricultural product through a co-operative society or Warehousing Corporation. The authorised capital of a State Warehousing Corporation does not exceed Rs. 2 crores. There are at present 27 warehouses functioning under the Central Corporation. State Corporations started their activities in 11 States in 1959. At present warehousing facilities are now available for about 59 commodities.

CHEQUE CLEARANCES, 1959

Number : in thousands. *Amount* : *Rs. in lakhs*

	Number	*Amount*		*Number*	*Amount*
1950-51 ..	2,178	553,18	1957-58 ..	3,473	746,23
1955-56 ..	3,100	663,02	1958-59 ..	3,764	813,93
1956-57 ..	3,334	727,03	1959-60 ..	4,172	915,67

CHEQUE CLEARANCES, 1959-60

	Number	*Amount*		*Number*	*Amount*
Bangalore ..	118	17,60	Madras ..	409	51,63
Bombay ..	1,481	347,58	Nagpur ..	36	5,25
Calcutta ..	765	296,44	New Delhi ..	193	37,30
Kanpur ..	88	16,45	Other Centres	1,081	143,42

POST OFFICE SAVINGS BANKE TRANSACTIONS 1951-1959

	No. of depositors (in thousands)	*Deposits including interests (in lakhs)*	*Withdrawals (in lakhs)*	*Balances at the end of the year (lakhs)*	*Average Balance per depositor (Rs.)*
1951 ..	4,090	110,19	93,80	185,06	452.5
1952 ..	4,446	121,33	108,55	199,81	449.4
1953 ..	4,830	124,49	106,74	217,68	450.7
1954 ..	5,070	141,18	126,91	231,95	457.5
1955 ..	5,384	147,17	122,63	256,49	476.4
1956 ..	5,988	171,64	134,63	293,50	490.1
1957 ..	6,385	193,98	165,32	322,08	504.4
1958 ..	6,920	192,17	174,62	339,63	490.8
1959 ..	7,724	204,93	183,79	360,77	467.1

(*Statistical Tables relating Banks in India*, 1959).

NUMBER OF OFFICES OF BANKING COMPANIES IN INDIA

	All Commercial Banks	*All Scheduled Banks*	*Ind. Scheduled Banks*	*Foreign Banks*	*Non-Scheduled Banks*
1951-52	4,149	2,689	2,624	65	1,460
1952-53	4,065	2,699	2,635	64	1,366

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1953-54	4,006	2,725	2,659	66	1,281
1954-55	4,037	2,807	2,741	67	1,230
1955-56	4,102	2,898	2,831	67	1,204
1956-57	4,175	3,018	2,951	69	1,537
1957-58	4,349	3,093	3,324	67	956
1958-59	4,603	3,713	3,646	68	890
1959-60	4,862	3,996	2,928	..	866

CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN INDIA

BEGINNING OF CO-OPERATION—The co-operative movement began in India in 1904 as a measure for the relief of chronic rural indebtedness prevalent in India. The co-operative movement was started with the enforcement of the Act of 1904, the operations of which were restricted only to credit. Since then the scope of the movement has been considerably widened, so that it now embraces almost all aspects of our economic life. The Act of 1904, however, revealed a number of serious defects, such as (1) no provision for the formation of non-credit co-operative socities (2) absence of Central Organisation for supervision and supply of funds (3) the system of rigid separation of the urban societies from the rural ones. In 1912 the Co-operative Societies Act removed the deficiency of the previous Act and for the first time permitted the organisation of non-credit societies in India. In 1915 Maclagan Committee was appointed for the further improvement of co-operative movement in India. According to the recommendation of this committee, the Montford Reforms of 1919 made co-operation a provincial transferred subject. From 1925 provincial Governments began to enact separate Co-operative Societies Act. But the matter did not improve. The co-operative societies' progress in India was very slow. The Government of India appointed the *Co-operative Planning Committee* in 1945 which recommended that primary societies should be converted into multipurpose societies and that efforts should be made to bring 50 p.c. of the village and 30 p.c. of the rural population within the sphere of reorganised societies within 10 years.

The Committee of Direction appointed by the Reserve Bank of India in 1951 recommended an integrated scheme of rural credit. The main recommendations were—(1) State partnership in co-operative institutions In all levels (2) full co-ordination between credit and other allied economic activities, specially marketing and processing (3) development at the base of viable primary agricultural credit societies (4) establishment of warehousing organisation (5) nationalisation of Imperial Bnk of India for providing vastly extended

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remittance facilities for co-operative and other banks. The result of the above recommendations of the Committee of Direction are as follows—

1. *The National Agricultural Credit (Long-term Operations) Fund* was set up in 1956 with contribution by the Government of India. This Fund is to be used for (a) grant of long-term loans to State Governments to enable them to contribute to the share capital of co-operative credit institutions (b) provision for medium agricultural loans (c) grant of long-term loans to central, land mortgage banks, etc.

2. *National Agricultural Credit (Stabilisation) Fund* was was started in 1956 with contribution from the Central Government for giving medium-term loans and advances to State co-operative banks to enable them to convert short-term credit to medium term credit wherever necessary for drought, famine or similar calamities.

3. *Agricultural Produce (Development and Warehousing Corporations Act*—was passed in 1956 for establishing a Central Warehousing Corporation and a State Warehousing Corporation for each State. The Central Warehousing Corporation set up warehouses at strategic centres, such as ports and railway junctions. 13 Warehousing Corporations have also been formed.

4. *National Co-operative Development and Warehousing Board* —was formed in 1956 under the Agricultural Produce (Development and Warehousing) Co-operations Act with the help of finance from the Central Government to promote the development of co-operative activities and particularly to assist the progress of warehousing, proceessing and marketing.

5. *State Bank of India*—was started in 1955 by converting Imperial Bank of India with the statutory obligation of opening 400 branches within five years for giving credit and other banking facilities to rural people.

Training—There is an All India Co-operative Training College at Poona for training senior officers of the co-operative departments and institutions. There are five regional training centres for the training of the intermediate grade personnel and eight institutions for the training of book level co-operative officers working in the Community Development Blocks.

Variety of Societies—The bulk of co-operative societies in India are credit Societies, not production societies (i.e. farming Societies) or multipurpose societies. The Credit Societies themselves could be classified into two broad categories, the one giving short-term loans and the other, long-term. Co-operative Credit or banking is a three-tiered structure. It consists of (1) Primary Credit Societies—Agricultural and non-Agricultural (2) Central Co-operative banks at the district level and (3) State Co-operative banks called apex banks. These three classes of societies provide short-term and medium-term credits. Long-term credits are met by Central Land Mortgage banks and Primary and Land Mortgage Bank.

Central Land Mortgage Banks—are the pivots of the structure of long-term finance to agriculturists through the primary land mortgage banks, and raise their funds mainly by the issue of deben-

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tures. The debentures are guaranteed by the State Governments in respect of payment of principal and the payment of interest.

Co-operative Farming—A memorable decision was taken by the Nagpur Session of the Indian National Congress in 1958. The Congress adopted co-operative farming as the future pattern of agriculture.

CO-OPERATIVE BANKING ORGANISATION—owes it origin to the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904 as amended by the Act of 1912. Under this Act, all classes of registered societies, whether in themselves primary units or federation of constituent societies, are spoken of as Societies. In actual practice, however, primary units are in some provinces known as banks and in others as societies. Co-operative Banks comprise State and Central Co-operative Banks and registered non-agricultural (urban) co-operative credit societies with limited liability, each having minimum paid-up capital and reserves of Rs. 1 lakh. They are sub-divided into two classes, namely, 'A' bank or banks with capital and reserves of Rs. 5 lakhs and above each, and 'B' banks or banks with capital and reserves ranging between Rs. one lakh and Rs. 5 lakhs each.

The Co-operative Banking system consists of the Provincial Bank at the apex, the affiliated Central Banks, and lastly, the primary societies affiliated to the Central Banks. According to the rules framed under the Act, these banks cannot generally lend to the non-members. The Central Co-operative Banks' principal function is to act as the balancing centre of their affiliated societies and to channel funds to the primary societies.

The functions of co-operative banks are as follows—(1) Attracting deposits from money-lenders and professional classes (2) lending money to the primary co-operative societies (3) taking away excess fund of a co-operative society and utilising it for making up deficiencies of others (4) supervising and guiding the actions of affiliated societies.

LIABILITIES AND ASSETS OF STATE & CENTRAL CO-OPERATIVE BANKS

(*In lakhs of rupees*)

	Paid-up Capital	*Total deposits*	*Totalliabilities or assets*	*Investments*	*Loans & Advances*
State Co-operative Banks—					
1957-58	8,47	45,44	114,01	25,30	74,73
1958-59	10,56	58,44	153,12	31,81	101,22
Central Co-operative Banks—					
1957-58	17,07	66,88	154,55	28,54	101,00
1958-59	23,14	77,95	200,19	36,35	130,72

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NATIONAL DEFENCE

DEFENCE ORGANISATION—The defence of India is the responsibility of the Ministry of Defence under the charge of a Cabinet Minister. Under the Indian Constitution, the Supreme Command of the Armed Forces of the Indian Republic vests in the President. On August 15, 1947 each Service was placed under its own Commander-in-Chief. In 1955 the title of the Commander-in-Chief was abolished and the three Service Chiefs of Army, Navy and Air Force were designated as the Chief of the Army Staff, the Chief of the Naval Staff and the Chief of the Air Staff respectively.

The Ministry of Defence is responsible for obtaining policy decisions of the Government on defence matters and for securing their implementation by the Service Headquarters.

The Defence Minister is assisted by two Deputy Ministers and a Parliamentary Secretary. The policy decisions of the Ministry relating to defence are taken by the—

(*a*) *Defence Committee of the Cabinet*—The Prime Minister is the Chairman of the Committee with the Ministers of Defence, Education and Scientific Research, Home, Finance and Transport and Communications as members.

(*b*) *Defence Minister's Committee.*

(*c*) *Chief of Staff Committee.*

The Inter-Services Organisations—The following are the inter-services organisations under the Ministry—

(1) *Office of the Chief Administrative Officer*—This officer is responsible for (*a*) all matters connected with the organisation and general administration of gazetted officers and non-gazetted staff of the Armed Forces Headquarters and the Inter-Services organisations (*b*) for office accommodation for Defence Headquarters and residential accommodation for Service officers (*c*) security measures for Defence Headquarters.

(2) *Directorate General of Ordnance Factories.*

(3) *Hindustan Aircraft (Private) Ltd.*

(4) *Bharat Electronics (Private) Ltd.*, produces wireless and electronic equipment primarily for the Defence Services and civil departments of the Government.

(5) *National Cadet Crops Directorate* deals with the N. C. C. and the Auxiliary Cadet Corps.

(6) *Military Lands and Cantonments Service* is responsible for the administration of the Cantonments in India and all military lands in and outside cantonments.

(7) *School of Foreign Languages*—provides teaching in French, Russian, German, Chinese, Persian, Arabic, Japanese, Burmese, Tibetan and Spanish.

(8) *Directorate-General, Armed Forces Medical Services*, has been established to develop the medical services of the Army, the Navy and the Air Force. The Armed Forces Medical College, Poona,

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the Armed Forces Medical Stores Depots at Bombay and Lucknow and the Artificial Limb Centre, Poona are under the Directorate.

(9) *Combined Inter-Services Historical Section* is a combined organisation of India and Pakistan for compiling an official history of the second World War.

(10) *Armed Forces Information Office* keeps the public informed about the activities of the Defence Services through the media of the press, radio, film, etc.

(11) *Armed Forces Film and Photo Division* caters for the film and photographic requirements of the three Services and the Director-General of Ordnance Services.

(12) *Office of the Fire Adviser.*

(13) *Director of Military Regulations and Forms* is responsible for the printing and publication of forms, stationery and distribution of decorations and medals, etc.

(14) *Indian Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board* is intended to render assistance to ex-Servicemen and their families and also to look after the domestic interests of serving personnel.

(15) *Resettlement Directorate*—formulates schemes for the rehabilitation of ex-Servicemen in all spheres.

RESEARCH AND DEFENCE PRODUCTION—In order to evolve a co-ordinated policy in regard to production of defence stores and equipment for the three Services, the Government of India set up in 1953 *a Defence Production Board.* The main function of the Board is to co-ordinate research, development and design activities in three Services relating to defence production. With Defence Minister as Chairman, the Board is responsible for the proper running of all ordnance factories. Attached to it are the Scientific Adviser to the Minister and the Controller-General of Defence Production, their respective departments being the Research and Development Organisation and the Production and Inspection Organisation. Research and Development Organisation was established in 1958. It is closely associated with the production and inspection organisation. It has under it research installations like Defence Science Laboratory, New Delhi, Defence Science Laboratory, Jodhpur, and Naval Physical Laboratories at Bombay and Cochin and research-*cum*-training installations like the Institute of Armament Studies, Kirkee.

Defence Science Laboratory—was started in 1950 and was formally opened at its new premises in Delhi on 9th April 1960. Its activities embrace varous aspects of defence science including operational research, ballistics, environmental physiology, military explosive, soil research, time and notion study and electronics. It has thus been resposible for fundamental and applied research on scientific matters relating to defence.

Army Cadet College—a pre-cadet training institution of other Ranks in the Service for entry into Indian Military Academy, Dehra Dun has been set up at Nowgong in Madhya Pradesh near Jhansi.

Institute of Armament Studies, Kirkee—This Institute, the first of its kind in India, was established at Kirkee in 1952 and started its regular course for technical staff officers in October, 1953. An

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important function of this Institute is to maintain contacts with the universities and other civilian research institutions to promote the dissemination of basic knowledge of defence science.

National Defence College—The National Defence College was inaugurated in 1960 in New Delhi for the joint training of Senior officers of the three Services, on the pattern of the Imperial Defence College in the U. K. Its main purpose is to enable students to study the military, scientific, industrial, social, economic and political factors involved in war as also the higher direction and strategy of warfare. Concurrently with this study, it offers a unique opportunity to senior Service officers and highly-placed civil servants of getting together and exchanging ideas so as to give them both the nearer and better understanding of each other's problems in peace and in war.

Defence Services Staff College—is an inter-Services institution in Wellington, South India. The object of the training is to prepare officers to hold second grade or equivalent staff appointments and also to equip them for Command and higher Staff appointments.

National Defence Academy—The main channel for entry into the commissioned ranks of the Services is the National Defence Academy, Khadakvasla, Poona. The Academy provides combined preliminary training to cadets of all the three Services for a period of three years. On passing out from the N.D.A., Army cadets join the Military College at Dehra Dun where they receive pre-commission training for one year ; while Navy and Air Force cadets go to the training institutions of their respective Services. The initial step therefore for getting a Commission in the Armed Forces is admission to the Defence Academy.

Rashtriya Indian Military College—Run on the lines of Public Schools, the Rashtriya Indian Military College, located at Dehra Dun, brings up future officers of the three Services by imparting preliminary pre-cadet training to such pupils as desire subsequently to choose a military career. It thus serves as a feeder to the National Defence Academy, which provides combined basic training to cadets of all the three Services.

Armed Forces Medical College—The Armed Forces Medical College has been started to impart training to newly commissioned medical officers and refresher courses for medical officers of the Armed Forces to keep them up-to-date in their profession.

NEW BADGES AND AWARDS—In conformity with the new status of free India, the pattern of various items of dress for three Services had to be revised. Badges and buttons having symbols or insignia of British royalty were dropped and replaced by appropriate emblems. Mottos, which tied India sentimentally with the British Crown, were amended and substituted by suitable Indian equivalents. Regiments and units of the Army possessing the King's Colours and State Forces Colours laid them up at the Military College.

Three Service decorations, namely *Param Vir Chakra*, *Maha Vir Chakra* and *Vir Chakra* for galantry in combat with the enemy were also announced. Besides, a fourth award, Ashoka Chakra, Classes 1, 2 and 3, were instituted for conferment for acts other than in combat with the enemy, as for example, in maintaining law and

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order. Members of the Armed Forces and civilians alike are eligible for this award.

MILITARY TRAINING FOR THE PEOPLE—In order to build up a reserve force to be called into service in a national emergency, a *Territorial Army*, a *Lok Sahayak Sena*, a *National Cadet Corps* and an *Auxilary Cadet Corps* have been formed.

Indian Territorial Army—On September 1, 1948, was passed the Indian Territorial Army Act primarily (*a*) to build up a reserve force to be called into service in a national emergency, (*b*) to be a second line of defence to reinforce the regular Army as and when the occasion demands, (*c*) to guard the home front, keep the supply and communication lines open, man the coastal defences and assist the civil administration in preserving internal order. Every individual joining the Territorial Army is required to undergo a period of intensive training for a month or two every year. The Territorial Army is meant for citizens between the ages of 18 and 35.

Lok Sahayak Sena—It was established in May, 1955. Its aim is to give elementary military training to about 5,00,000 men in five years. All able-bodied men between the ages of 18 and 40 can join the Lok Sahayak Sena. Membership of the Force carries no liability to military services. Recruits are given 30 days training.

National Cadet Corps—On April 8, 1948, the Indian Parliament passed the Indian National Cadet Corps Act with the object of (*a*) developing character, comradeship, ideal of service and leadership in the youth of the country, (*b*) giving the youth basic military training and training in the weapons and equipment of the three Services and thus attracting suitable young men to join the country's Armed Forces, (*c*) stimulating interest in the defence of the country and (*d*) building up a reserve of leaders to enable the Armed Forces to be expanded rapidly in a national emergency.

The N.C.C. is entirely voluntary, with no liability for service in the Armed Forces. This is meant for the students in schools and colleges. The Cadet Corps consists of three divisions, namely, senior, junior, and girls. The Senior and Junior Divisions consist of Army, Navy and Air Force Wings and the Girls Division of the Senior and Junior Wings. The strength of the Corps 31st March, 1959 was 1,80,400 cadets and 4,970 officers.

Auxiliary Cadet Corps—In order to cope with the demand for military training for boys and girls in schools who cannot get the admission into the National Cadet Corps, the Auxiliary Cadet Corps was started in 1952. The Auxiliary Cadet Corps trains the youth of the country in team spirit, discipline and patriotism. The Corps functions under the overall supervision of the Director, National Cadet Corps, Ministry of Defence.

Auxiliary Air Force has now five Squadrons at Bombay, Madras, Allahabad, Calcutta and Delhi as counter-parts of the Territorial Army in the Air Force.

INDIAN ARMY

The Army Headquarters, like the other two Services Headquarters,

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is located in Delhi, and functions directly under the Chief of the Army Staff. It is divided into the following six main branches : (*a*) General Staff Branch, (*b*) Adjutant-General's Branch, (*c*) Quarter-Master-General's Branch, (*d*) Master-General of the ordnance Branch, (*e*) Engineer-in-Chief's Branch and (*f*) Military Secretary's Branch. These branches are further sub-divided into Directorates.

Commands and Areas—Under the Army Headquarters, the Army is organised into Commands, each under a G.O.C.-in-Chief of the rank of Lt.-General. There are three Commands—Southern, Eastern and Western. The Command is divided into Areas, each under the command of a G.O.C. of the rank of Major-General, and the Areas are in their turn divided into sub-Areas, each under the command of a Brigadier. These are static formations, the operational mobile formations corresponding to the Command, Area and Sub-Area being respectively Corps, Division and Brigade.

Military Academy—The Indian Military Academy at Dehra Dun is the premier institution for training future officers of the Army. The principal source of entry into this Academy is the National Defence Academy, where the cadets passing out of the N.D.A. receive one year's training at Dehra Dun before being commissioned ; other entrants are those who qualify in the competitive entrance examination of the Union Public Service Commission and the Services Selection Board for two years' training, graduate cadets of the NCC for one and a half years, other graduates selected for specialised commission in the technical arms for a year and serving Regular or Territorial Army personnel—JCOS and NCOS—for two years.

College of Military Engineering, Kirkee—This college is situated at Kirkee, near Poona. It trains officers and other ranks in military engineering.

Army Schools—Army runs a number of schools and training centres. These are the main schools (1) Service Corps School, Bareilly, (2) Remounts Veterinary and Farms Centre and School, Meerut, (3) School of Physical Training, Poona, (4) Army and Air Transport Support School, Agra, (5) School of Mechanical Transport, Faizabad, (6) Corps of Military Police Centre and School, Faizabad, (7) Education Centre and School, Pachmarhi, (8) Military School of Music, Panchmarhi, (9 Electrical and Mechanical School, Trimulgherry. The Army runs a number of schools for advanced training of tele-communication and signal tactics ; School of Artillery Centre at Ahmednagar ; Schools of Signals at Mhow for basic and advanced technical training in telecommunication and signal tactics ; School of Artillery at Deolali for training in field, anti-tank and anti-aircraft artillery, while the branch at Bombay provides training in coastal artillery. The Ordnance School at Jabalpur for speacialised corps training in the identification, handling, storage, care, custody and preservation of all items, including ammunities and explosives stocked by ordnance depots. Infantry School at Mhow and Ordnance School at Jabalpur.

Army Ranks—The various commissioned ranks in the Army from the top downwards are : General, Lieutenant-General, Major-

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General, Brigadier, Colonel, Lt. Colonel, Major, Captain, Lieutenant and Second Lieutenant. The ranks of the Junior Commissioned Officers and other ranks respectively are Subedar-major/Resaldar-major, Subedar/Resaldar and Jamadar/Dafadar and Havildar, Naik, Lance-Naik and Sepoy/Sowar.

REVISED PAY SCALES OF ARMY OFFICERS

Years of Service	*Substantive Rank*	*Rs. per month*	*Years of Service*	*Substantive Rank*	*Rs. per month*
1	2nd Lt.	400	14	Major	1,000
2	,,	400	15	,,	1,000
3	Lt.	450	16	,,	1,050
4	,,	480	17	,,	1,050
5	,,	510	18	,,	1,200
6	,,	540	19	,,	1,100
7	Captain	710	20	,,	1,150
8	,,	750	21	,,	1,150
9	,,	790	22	,,	1,200
10	,,	930	23	,,	1,200
11	,,	870	24	,,	1,200
12	,,	910	..	..	..
13	,,	950	..	..	..

INDIAN NAVY

The Naval Headquarters at Delhi controls the administration and operation of all ships and establishments. The head of this organisation is the Chief of the Naval Staff. There are four Principal Staff Officers under the Chief of the Naval Staff, such as (1) *Deputy Chief of the Naval Staff*—responsible for all work in connection with operations, plans, movement programmes, intelligence, security, communications, hydrography, press and publicity, statistics, etc. (2) *Chief of Personnel*—responsible for recrutment, service conditions, training, welfare and discipline of naval personnel, appointment of officers and general manning of the fleet. (3) *Chief of the Material*—responsible for the provision of ships, weapons and equipment, dockyard facilities, aquisition and construction of ships and the production and procurement of all naval stores. (4) *Chief of the Naval Aviation*—responsible for the general direction and co-ordination of all naval air matters.

All ships afloat, excluding minesweepers and survey ships, are controlled by the *Flag Officer* commanding the fleet. All shore establishments of the Navy in or near Bombay including Jamnagar and Lonavla, are controlled by Flag Officer. *Commodore-in-Charge, Cochin*, is responsible for all shore establishments and ships in Cochin. The Commodore, East Coast, Visakhapatnam, is responsible for the administration of I.N.S. Circars, I.N.S. Hooghly and I.N.S. Adyar

The Indian Fleet consists today, among others, the following—

(a) Flagship *I.N.S. Mysore* (Colony class cruiser 8,7000 tons).
(b) *Delhi* (Leander-class cruiser 7,030 tons).

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(c) *Destroyer Squadrons—Rajput, Ranjit, Rana, Godavari, Ganga* and *Gomati. Frigate Squadrons—Tir, Kishna* and *Cauvery.*

(d) Minesweeping Squadrons—*Bombay, Konkan, Madras, Bengal, Rohilkhand, Bassein, Bimlipatam, Karwar, Cannanore, Cuddalore, Kakinada* and *Rajputana.*

In the programme of modernisation of the Fleet, a number of new ships have been acquired. These are mostly anti-submarine and anti-aircraft frigates of the latest type, some of which are still under construction in the U.K. Of these, I.N.S. BRAHMAPUTRA, KHUKRI, KIRPAN and KUTHAR have already joined the Fleet, and are being grouped into separate frigate squadrons. Those still under construction or in the various stages of completion are I.N.S. BEAS, BETWA, TALWAR and TRISHUL.

There is a proposal for building certain simpler types of naval vessels in India. A mooring vessel, I.N.S. DHRUVAK, and a survey ship, I.N.S. DARSHAK, built at the Hindustan Shipyard (Private) Ltd., Visakhapatnam, have already been launched.

As a result of the latest decision of the Government to acquire H.M.S. HERCULES, an aircraft carrier, together with a fleet of operational aircraft, the future of naval aviation in India is assured. The HERCULES, with a 15,700 ton displacement, is at present being re-fitted and modernised in the U.K. and will become available in a few years. Meanwhile, the question of manning the carrier and training its naval aircrew is engaging the attention of the Government. As a first step, a Naval Air Training School has been set up at Cochin to train ratings in the maintenance and repair of aircraft. At the same time, the Government are considering the setting up of a School for Naval Airmen for training non-technical personnel.

When commissioned into the Indian Navy, the carrier will be known as I.N.S. VIKRANT. Meanwhile, a number of Sea Hawks and Brognot Alize aircraft are being acquired for the carrier.

Naval Training—The training of naval personnel is carried on at the following shore establishments—INS *Vendurthy*, Cochin, INS *Circars*, Visakhapatnam, INS *Angre*, Bombay, INS *Kunjali*, Bombay, INS *Sivaji*, Lonavla, INS *Valsura*, Jamnagar, and INS *Hamla*, Bombay. The training of personnel of the Naval Aviation Wing is carried on the Fleet-Requirements Unit of INS *Garuda* at Cochin, which was the Navy's first air station to be commissioned in May 1953 with the formation of a squadron of amphibious Sealand Firefly aircrafts. INS *Asvini* at Bombay and INS *Sanjivani* are the two naval hospitals which have been set up so far. The Naval Dockyard at Bombay is being expanded to meet the growing requirements of the Fleet. For production and printing of charts and marine survey, a Naval Hydrographic Office has been established at Dehra Dun.

Navy Ranks—The various ranks of the Navy from the top downwards are : Admiral, Vice-Admiral, Rear-Admiral, Commodore, Captain, Commander, Lt. Commander, Lieutenant, Sub-Lieutenant, Branch List Officer, Midshipman, Chief Petty Officer, Petty Officer, Leading Rate, Able Rate and Ordinary Rate.

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INDIAN AIR FORCE

On the recommendation of the Skeen Committee in 1926, a flight of the Indian Air Force was formed on April 1, 1933. Begining its career with a few Wapiti aircraft and a handful of Cranwell-trained pilots and a small team of airmen, the IAF has acquired a distinguished stature and status during the past 25 years. Today the service is not only a distinct and indispensible arm of the country's Armed Forces, in keeping with the defence needs of the nation, but it is a modern, flying fit, expanding Air Force.

The Air Force is under the Chief of the Air Staff, who is responsible for the command, discipline, operation, training and efficiency of the Air Force. It consists of three main branches, each under the charge of a Principal Staff Officer. The three main branches are—

(1) *Air Staff Branch*—controls air staff matters.

(2) *Administration Branch* is responsible for estimates, establishments, recruitment, posting and promotions of personnel and for accounting.

(3) *Maintenance Branch* controls the technical and equipment services.

The organisation of the Air Force below the Air Headquarters level is as follows—(1) *Operational Command* has under its control all flying units and signal units. The Command is responsible for the front-line air defence and surface support. (2) *Training Command* has under its command all ground and flying training units which are responsible for the training of officers and airmen. (3) *Maintenance Command* is responsible for the storage, maintenance and repair of aircraft and equipment of the I.A.F.

Air Reserves—The Reserves and Auxiliary Air Forces Act, passed in August 1952, provides for the establishment of three different categories of Air Force Reserves.

The first type is to be known as *Regular Reserve*, comprising those officers and airmen who have at one time or other served in the regular Air Force and have since gone out of service on release or retirement. The second category, known as *Air Defence Reserve*, will consist of all technical and flying personnel associated with aviation but not directly connected with the regular Air Force. The third type, known as *Auxiliary Air Force*, is more or less a counterpart of the Territorial Army in the Land Forces. Auxiliary Air Force so far comprises a five squadrons raised in the principal cities of India.

Entry into Air Force—The *officer* cadre in the Air Force comprises eight branches, viz. General Duties Branch consisting of pilots and navigators for flying duties and Ground Duties Branches (Technical Administration and Special Duties, Equipment, Accounts, Medical, Metrological and Education). Candidates are selected for direct entry into one of the Air Force training institutions—Air Force Flying College, Jodhpur, Air Force Technical College, Jalahalli (Bangalore) and Air Force Administrative College, Coimbatore.

The Air Force Flying College at Jodhpur is the nursery of pilots,

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navigators and air-signallers. Advance flying training to aircrew is provided at Hyderabad. A Jet Training Wing and a Transport Training Wing have been set up at Hakimpet and Begumpet respectively as part of the Air Force Station. On successful completion of their one-year training at Jodhpur, pupil aircrew have to undergo a year's training at Hakimpet or Begumpet before being awarded their wings and commissioned.

A School of Land/Air Warfare has been set up at Secunderabad to train Army and Air Force officers in the doctrine and planning of joint operations by air and ground forces, namely, close air support, air transport support and air defence.

The School of Aviation Medicine, set up in Bangalore in 1957, runs courses for the training of medical officers and airmen in the science of aviation medicine.

The Defence Ministry recently entered into an agreement with Messrs. Hawker Siddeley Aviation, Ltd., of the U.K. for the manufacture in India under licence of the Avro-748 transport aircraft in replacement of the Dakotas, which are now getting obsolete. The manufacture of this aircraft, with the help of British technicians, will be undertaken at the Air Force base at Kanpur. The Avro-748 is a pressurised low-wing monoplane offering comparatively low operating costs, with the additional advantage of propeller-turbine power plant. It will have Rolls-Royce Dart engines.

Air Force Ranks—The various commisioned ranks in the Air Force from the top downwards are Air Chief Marshal, Air Marshal, Air Vice-Marshal, Air Commodore, Group Captain, Captain, Wing Commander, Squadron Leader, Flight Lieutenant, Flying Officer and Pilot Officer.

INDIAN ARCHAEOLOGY

BEGINNING OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL STUDY IN INDIA—The idea of founding an institution for promoting the study of oriental literature and culture was first conceived by Sir William Jones, puisne Judge of the Supreme Court at Calcutta. In January, 1784 within four months of his arrival, Asiatic Society of Bengal and a museum were established under his guidance with the object of enquiring into the history and antiquities, arts, science and literature of Asia.

Though great impetus was given to the study of archaeology, there was, however, no systematic exploration of the antiquarian remains in the country during all these years. In 1833 James Prinsep, Assey-master, Calcutta Mint, who was then secretary of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, discovered the key to the hitherto mysterious Brahmi alphabet and later he deciphered also the mystery of the Kharoshthi alphabet which is used in the North-West. After Prinsep's death, the work was continued by others, notably Cunning-

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ham who was a Lientenant of the Royal Engineers. In 1948 he formulated a plan for an Indian Archaeological Survey but his efforts bore no fruit. In 1861, however, his memorandum to Lord Canning produced happy results. The task was entrusted to Cunningham who was made the first Archeological Surveyor of India. But all the good works done by him had to be discontinued because Archeological Survey was abolished in February, 1866. However in 1870, during the Viceroyalty of Lord Mayo, Government of India sanctioned the post of a Director-General of Archaeological Survey, for which Cunningham was appointed. The conservation of ancient monuments, however, did not form any part of the duties of this department. This service was supposed to be performed by the Provincial Governments through their P. W. D. The result was that a scant attention was paid to the structural monuments of India. However, in 1878, Lord Lytton, then Viceroy of India, wrote, "the preservation of national antiquities and works of art ought not to be left to the charges of local Government." The pronouncement led to the creation of the post of a "Curator of Ancient Monuments." His duty was to prepare a classified list of ancient monuments of each province and to advise Government as to which of them were fit to be kept in permanent good repair, or decayed beyond that point but not in complete ruin, or were unimportant or irretrievably ruined. But this post was again abolished and the task of conservation of monuments again devolved on Provincial Governments. The same year saw another great archaeological event in the passing of the Indian Treasure Trove Act VI of 1878.

In 1885 the Surveys of Northern and Southern India were amalgamated and were placed under a Director-General. The whole of British India was divided into five circles, *viz.*, Madras, Bombay. Punjab (with Sind and Rajputana), North-West Provinces (with Central India and Central Provinces) and Bengal (with Assam). But from 1889 the Survey again fell into bad days, with the result that several important posts were kept in abeyance. This chaos continued till the end of the last century.

But the brightest day of Indian Archaeology in India dawned with the appointment of Lord Curzon as the Viceroy of India. In one of his speeches he announced "the conservation of ancient monuments is one of the primary obligations of the Government." In 1904, the Legislature passed the much needed *Ancient Monuments Preservation Act*, which brought a new era for Indian archaeology. The main object of the Act was "to ensure the proper upkeep and repair of ancient buildings in private ownership excepting such as were used for religious purposes, to prevent the excavation of sites of historic interest by ignorant and unauthorised persons, and to secure control over the traffic in antiquities."

With the departure of Lord Curzon in 1906 the Department passed through various vicissitudes of fortune. From 1907 onwards there had been curtailments, retrenchments, reorganisations. The Reforms of 1919 made archaeology a Central subject and since then it has continued to be such. Since the inception, the Survey had concerned itself primarily with monuments dating from Maurya

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Period, because very little archaeological evidence of a period earlier than the time of Buddha was forthcoming. It was never dreamt that there could have been an earlier civilisation which was in every respect superior to the civilisation of the Aryan immigrants. All such ideas were, however, completely transformed by the discovery of the Indus Valley Civilisation together with regular excavations of important archaeological sites and also explorations in the borders of India and beyond them, such as the undertakings of Sir Aurel Stein in Chinese Turkistan, which made the work of the Survey more progressive and more widespread.

With the attainment of Independence on 15th August, 1947 and the partition of the country, fresh reorganisation of the department was called for. While the Indus Valley and Gandhara regions were lost by India, an additional area of about 160,000 square miles came under the Central Archeological Department owing to the merger of the States. The Archeological Survey of India was named the Department of Archaeology.

THE ADMINISTRATION—The Archaeological Department has no provincial centres, but for the purpose of carrying out archaeological work in the States, it has been divided into 10 circles :—1. Northern Circle, Agra. 2. Mid-Eastern Circle, Patna. 3. Eastern Circle, Calcutta. 4. S. E. Circle, Visakhapatnam. 5. Southern Circle, Madras. 6. South-Western Circle, Aurangabad. 7. Western Circle, Baroda. 8. Central Circle, Bhopal. 9. North-Western Circle, Delhi. 10. Jammu & Kashmir Circle. There is a *Central Advisory Board of Archaeology.* This Board is an advisory body consisting of Parliament, States, learned bodies—both scientific and historical, and the Central Archaeological officers.

PROTECTION FROM MISUSE—The Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Sites and Remains Act of 1958 came into force on the 15th October, 1959. The main provisions of the Act are : (1) offences against protected monuments by way of destruction, removal, defacement or misuse will henceforth be a cognisable offence under the law (2) greater measure of protection to cultural relics than possible hitherto under the Ancient Monuments Preservation Act, 1904 (3) no person including the owner or occupier of ancient sites, shall encumber the site with modern construction or undertake mining, quarrying, excavating and blasting operation without the permission of the Central Government (4) compulsory acquisition of antiquities of historical or archaeological importance which are in private possession and in danger of being destroyed or misused. The Central Government also reserves to itself the right to prohibit the movement of such antiquities except with the permission of the Director-General.

The Department of Arachaeology is under the charge of a Director-General. This Department is responsible for the preservation of ancient monuments of national importance and for undertaking exploration and archaeological excavations. It also assists various non-governmental institutions in conducting explorations and excavations. Under the new Act 10 State Governments have set up Archaeological Departments.

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Entry into important monuments in the country will be regulated by a small uniform fee of 20 Naye Paise per person except in the case of children below the age of 15 who will be admitted free of charge.

Protected Monuments—There are at present about 5,100 monuments on National list to which additions are made periodically.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH—The works of the Department are primarily two-fold—conservation and research and exploration, and are divided into four branches, namely, *Excavation Branch, Epigraphical Branch, Chemical Branch* and *Museum Branch.*

Epigraphical Research—India has inherited a vast legacy of epigraphical material. The number of old inscriptions discovered run literally into thousands. Inscriptions are found more commonly on metals and stones. This research is being carried on by the Epigraphical Branch.

Chemical Branch—came into being in 1917. The principal work of this department is the chemical treatment and preservation of museum exhibits and other antiquities, chemical conservations of monuments and interpretation of ancient Indian techniques through chemical analysis and scientific examination of all specimens.

Museum Branch—The development of Indian museums has been one of the important works of the Department. The progressive expansion of archaeological enterprise throughout the country gave rise to the growth of archaeological museums on excavated sites, such as, Nalanda, Sarnath. The museum branch of the Department was established in 1945 to control site museums. India has, at present, about a 100 museums most of which house archaeological exhibits. The first museum of the country was founded by the Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1814 which grew into what is—the Indian Museum in Calcutta.

Excavation Branch—This branch is engaged in the work of exploration and excavation all over India. These two works have red to the discoveries of many archeological sites, temples, inscriptions, images, ruins and even skeletons.

SCHOOL OF ARCHAEOLOGY—A school of archaeology was started on October 15, 1959 at New Delhi. The object of the the school is to concentrate in the practical aspects of archaeology and train students to be professional practising archaeologists. It will also help to meet the requirements of State Governments that often approach the Archaeological Department for the loan of services of the officers of the Department. The durtaion of each course is 20 months. At the end of the course, an examination is held and successful candidates are awarded a diploma.

PUBLICATION—Another important activity of the Department is the publication of the results of excavation and other research work. The publicatoins of the Archaeological Survey of India constitute a noble mine of information for any future historian of India. The Department has published several numbers of 'Ancient India,' the bulletin of Archaeological Survey : upto No. 12, guide books for several monuments ; *Epigraphia India, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum,* etc.

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Historical Records Commission—The Commission was set up in 1919 by a regulation of the Government of India. It is a national organisation of individuals and institutions engaged in the study, upkeep and preservation of records and historical manuscripts. The Minister of Education is the ex-officio President of the Commission and the Director of National Archives is the Secretary.

IMPORTANT DATES OF ARCHAEOLOGY

1794—Asiatic Society of Bengal established.
1862—Archaeological Survey of India formally came into being.
1872—Publication of *Indian Antiquary*.
1677—Publication of the 1st volume of *Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum* containing carefully edited texts of all available inscriptions of Asoka and his grandson with translation and lithographic facsimiles.
1878—Treasure Trove Act passed to stop treasure hunters and others dispoiling the objects of antiquity.
1904—Ancient Monuments Preservation Act was passed to provide for the preservation of ancient monuments.
1945—Central Advisory Board of Archaeology was formed.
1948—Archaeological Survey of India renamed as Department of Archeology.
1949—National Museum was inaugurated at New Delhi on the 15th August ; School of Archeology opend at Delhi.
1958—Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Sites and Remains Preservation Act passed.
1959—School of Archaeology was opened at New Delhi on 15th October, 1959.

LANGUAGES—WORLD & INDIA

INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE—The languages of the peoples of Europe and parts of Asia appear to have come from a mother language which is generally called *"Indo-European"* language. The Indo-European languages are divided into Germanic, Celtic, Romance, Albania, Greek, Slavic, Baltic, Indo-Iranian and Armenian. A short note on each language is given here—

Romance languages are one of the most important of Indo-European languages. *Latin* is the mother of the Romance languages which include Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese and Rumanian.

Celtic—includes Welsh, Briton, Irish, Scottish, Gaelic, Manx.

Germanic—includes modern German, Dutch, English, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian among its principal languages.

Greek—has modern Greek as survivor of a group of historical languages.

Slavic-languages include Russian, Ukrainian, Polish, Czech, Baltic.

Albanian and Armenian, which are classified separately in the Indo-European Group.

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Indo-Iranian—consists of numerous languages of Middle and Southern Asia, spoken by over 300,000,000 and includes Iranian, Indic (to which classical Sanskrit is related) Hindi, Bengali, ,Kashmiri, Gujarati, Marathi, Rajasthani, Punjabi, Pahari, Urdu, Hindustani, Oriya.

Dravidian—These are the languages of Northern Ceylon, Malabar, Coromandel, Baluchistan and other parts of Southern and Central India. These languages are Tamil, Malayalam, Kanarese, Kulu, Kota, Toda, Telugu, Gondi, Kurukh, Malto, Bhil, Kolani, and Brahui.

Hamito-Semitic—prevails in Asia Minor and North-Eastern Africa. In this group are such languages as early Egyptian (later Coptic), Etheopic, Aramaic, Hibrew, Phoenician, Assyro-Babylonian and Arabic. Many of these languages are dead, but the peoples of the Middle East, north-eastern Africa and Malta speak languages descended from them.

Malayo-Polynesian—includes languages of Malaya, East Indies and other islands of South-West Pacific.

Sino-Tibetan or Indo-Chinese—Chinese, Tibetan, Burmese and Siamese.

Caucasian—There are many languages in this group not clearly related. The most important of these is that spoken by the Georgian people in the southern part of the Soviet Union.

Ibero-Basque—is spoken by the Basque people of Spain and France.

Japanese and Korean.

Australian—There are about 100 different languages which are not clearly related but they are spoken by the natives of Australia.

PRINCIPAL WORLD LANGUAGES

Arabic ..	74,000,000	Italian ..	57,000,000
Bengali ..	70,000,000	Polish ..	33,000,000
Chinese ..	569,000,000	Portuguese ..	72,000,000
English ..	275,000,000	Russian ..	153,000,000
French ..	70,000,000	Spanish ..	139,000,000
Hindustani ..	196,000,000	Turkish	23,000,000
Indonesion-Malay ..	80,000,000		

INDIAN LANGUAGES

Languages in the Indian Constitution—Indian Constitution recognises fourteen languages—namely, Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Urdu, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Tamil and Telugu. Hindi has been declared the official language of the country, but for a period of fifteen years English will also continue to be in official use. Among these 14 languages, there are, in varying degrees, larger elements of identity and similarity. In their scripts and alphabet, all, except for Urdu, have variant expressions of a common Indian phonetical system.

The Language Commission in their Report in 1959 have expressed

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the opinion that English may be continued to be official language after 1965.

Official Languages in India—Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh have adopted Hindi as the official language. In Madras, Tamil has been recognised as the official language. In Andhra Pradesh English continues to be the official language. Orissa has adopted Oriya as the official language of the State. In the Punjab, the formula provides for the use of Hindi and Punjabi as regional languages in different regions of the State.

Origin and Growth of Indian Languages—The four great linguistic families of India are (1) *Indo-Aryan*, (2) *Dravidian*, (3) *Austrio* and (4) *Sino-Tibetan*.

Indo-Aryan Languages are descended from the ancient speech of the Indo-European invaders who came to India from their original homeland in the Eurasian plains. The oldest form of Aryan speech is to be found in the Vedas believed to have been completed in the 10th century B.C. Vedic Sanskrit gradually developed into what are known as middle Indo-Aryan dialects. Between 600 B.C. and 1000 A.D.—the period of Aryan expansion, they gradually spread over northern India. The early literature of Buddhism is enshrined in Pali, one of the earlier Indo-Aryan dialects. By the tenth century A.D. the middle Indo-Aryan dialects gradually developed into modern Indo-Aryan languages.

Dravidian Languages have their home in Peninsular India and include twelve distinct languages—*Tamil, Telugu, Kanarese, Malavalam, Tulu, Kodagu, Todda, Kota, Gond, Khond, Oraon and Rajmahal.* These languages are spoken in the following regions or districts of India—south-eastern, north-eastern and south-western, the Malabar coast, Coorg (adjoining the Malabar coast), Nilgiri Hills, Central India, north-west Orissa, and Rajmahal Hills of Bengal. Tamil is also spoken in the northern part of Ceylon, and Brahui in Beluchistan. Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam and Kannada are the most important among them. Tamil, the oldest member of the group, preserves a good deal of the general character and vocabulary of the ancient Dravidian speech ; it has a most extensive vocabulary. Malayalam is closely related to Tamil and has borrowed considerably from Sanskrit.

Primitive tribes constituting about 1.3 per cent of the population of India speak *Austric Language*, represented in the hills and jungles of central and north-eastern India. These languages are said to be related to those of south-east Asia. They are believed to have come to India with the invaders from the north-east long before the Indo-Aryan invasion. Following are the Austric languages—

(*a*) *Kol* or *Munda* group which includes *Santhali, Mundari Ho*, etc.

(*b*) *Khasi* in Assam and (*c*) *Nicobarese.*

Sino-Tibetian Languages are used by small tribes along the southern slopes of the Himalayas, in the north Bengal and Assam. These languages mostly belong to the Mongolian race. Newari of Nepal and Meithei or Manipuri of Manipur are the most important among them.

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Modern India Languages—A short description of the important modern languages is given here—

Hindi with its various branches is the third most important language of the world after Chinese and English. The language is the spoken language in the following States—Bihar, U.P., major portion of Madhya Bharat, Rajasthan, Vindhya Pradesh, Bhopal, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and also eastern half of the Punjab. As the geographical extent of language is very great, the masses use more than dozen allied local dialects, each one of which is equally important and is very rich in literary folk traditions. Within what is known as the Hindi-speaking area various dialects are spoken and were once cultivated as literary languages but during the first decades of the 19th century, the *Khariboli*, one of the component dialects of Hindi, emerged as the standard and accepted form of Hindi-speaking over the whole of the Hindi-speaking area. It is the State language of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and some of other States of India.

Urdu—So far as *Urdu* and *Hindi* are concerned, they are basically the same language in points of structure, grammar and syntax and there is a considerable fund of vocabulary common to both. Three factors, however, contribute to their separation. Firstly, Hindi is written in Devnagri script and Urdu in Persian-Arabic script. Secondly, owing to various historical and sociological association, Hindi has to be associated with Hindus and Urdu with Muslims. Thirdly, Urdu writers tend to draw upon Arabic and Persian for expanding their vocabulary and Hindi writers upon Sanskrit. Urdu originated from the dialect spoken round about Delhi. It became the spoken language of the Muslims when they settled in Delhi. It was in fact at first the court or the camp language of the Mughals. In the State of Jammu & Kashmir, it is recognised as one of the State languages along with Kashmiri. In Northern India, more specially in Delhi, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, the use of Urdu has been widely spread, though it is conined to a minority chiefly living in towns.

Bengali is the language of about 80 million people and although less than half of this number are in West Bengal, there is identity of speech and culture which links up West Bengal in India with East Bengal in Pakistan. The whole of the Bengalee people inherit a common literature, which is one of the most significant facts in modern India. It is also spoken by the majority of the people of Cachar district of Assam and Tripura. It is not only the most compact language of two Bengals, but also the most progressive language of India.

Bengali literature started with some songs and poems of the Buddhist mystic inspiration going back to the 10th century A. D. After the establishment of the British rule in Bengal, Bengali as a language came in touch with English and, as a result, a veritable renaissance took place. A number of very eminent writers not only for Bengal but for the whole of India, expressed themselves through the Bengali language—beginning with Raja Rammohon Roy, Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar, Michael Madhusudan Dutt, Bankim

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Chandra Chatterjee and, above all, Rabindranath Tagore. The emancipation of Indian mind through literature was started in Bengal, and the galaxy of eminent novelists and other writers of the present day, among whom the name of Sarat Chandra Chatterjee deserves special mention, still hold the torch of India for rational thinking through literature.

Telugu—is one of the important members of the Dravidian group of languages and takes the third rank among the languages of India, next to Hindi and Bengali. The language seems to have branched out from the parent Dravidian tongue in the middle of the first millennium B. C.

Bhojpuri—is claimed to be the spoken language of about 4 crores of people living within an area of 250 lakh sq. miles. The districts of Saran, Champaran, Sahabad, Palamou and Ranchi (part) in Bihar and Balia, Gazipur, Banaras, Mirzapur, Gorakhpur, Azamgarh and Deoria in U. P. and Jaspur and Surguja in Vindhya Pradesh comprise Bhojpuri-speaking area. It is spoken by about four crores of people.

Marathi is spoken in western and central India. It covers parts of two States of India—Bombay and Madhya Pradesh. It is also spoken in Portuguese India and in some parts of Hyderabad.

Gujarati is spoken in Gujarat, the northern maritime portion of Bombay and also in Baroda and adjoining places. *Rajasthani* is spoken in Rajasthan and adjoining parts of central India. Rajasthani has numerous dialects. *Pahari* is a general name applied to Indo-Aryan languages spoken in the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Nepal to the east of Calcutta.

LANGUAGES OF THE 8TH SCHEDULE OF THE CONSTITUTION *

Hindi, Urdu, Hindusthani, Punjabi	14,99,44,311	Kannara ..	1,44,71,764
Telegu ..	3,29,99,916	Malayalam ..	1,33,80,109
Marathi ..	2,70,49,522	Assamese ..	49,88,226
Tamil ..	2,65,46,764	Kashmiri ..	5,086
Bengali ..	2,51,21,674	Sanskrit ..	556
Gujarati ..	1,63,10,771		

TRIBAL LANGUAGES OR DIALECTS WITH SPEAKERS NUMBERING A LAKH OR OVER

Santhali	2,811,578	Meithei (Manipuri)	485,787	Savara	256,259
Gondi	1,232,886	Banjari or		Boro Bodo	166,447
Bhili	1,160,299	Labhani	332,317	Lushai	163,600
Oraon, Kumuch	644,042	Kondh	280,561	Paraja	146,938
Lambadi	628,166	Bhilali	264,289	Maria	140,583
Ho	599,876	Garo	239,816	Koya	137,358
Mundari, Munda		Khasi	230,982	Mikir	130,746
etc.	585,211	Kui	206,509	*Total*	11,531,884
Vagdi	516,991	Korku	170,607		

*Figures are exclusive of speakers in Jammu & Kashmir and Part B Tribal Areas of Assam where no census was held in 1951.

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OTHER INDIAN LANGUAGES OR DIALECTS WITH SPEAKERS NUMBERING A LAKH OR OVER

*Marwari	4,514,737	*Brij-bhasha	177,847	*Ajmeri	463,161
*Mewari	2,014,874	*Tripura	129,379	Nepali	421,688
*Dhundhari or *Jaipuri	1,588,069	*Saurashtra	124,486	Mewati	111,083
*Bagri	926,029	*Tulu	787,624	*Khatria	110,592
*Chattisgarhi	902,908	*Sindhi	745,434	*Nimadi	110,577
*Malwi (Malvi(	886,895	*Rajasthani	645,001	*Bhumij	101,508
*Halbi	264,912	*Konkani	639,020	*Total*	17,698,041
*Nimari	180,696	*Kumaoni	571,401		
		*Garwali	484,261		

OTHER INDIAN LANGUAGES OR DIALECTS WITH SPEAKERS NUMBERING LESS THAN A LAKH

Total number of languages or dialects	720	Total No. of Speakers	2,806,974

PRINCIPAL NON-INDIAN LANGUAGE SPEAKERS

Arabic	7,914	German	1,655	Persian	11,814
Burmese	3,955	Hebrew	1,209	Portuguese	6,652
Chinese	9,214	Italian	685	Tibetan	2,494
English	171,742	Malayan	703	Sinhalese	561
French	1,929				

PUBLIC HEALTH IN INDIA

MINISTRY OF HEALTH—This Ministry is directly responsible for the health of the Centrally Administered Areas. The States are autonomous in respect of medical relief and public health. The Centre, however, advises the States and keeps in close touch with them in their endeavour to build up the health of the people committed to their charge.

In wider aspect, the functions of the Central Ministry of Health may be summarised as follows :—

(1) Administration of Central Health Institutions.

(2) Promotion of medical research, regulation and development of medical, pharmaceutical, dental and nursing professions in consultation with State Governments and statutory councils and laying down the standards of education for these professions.

(3) Establishment and maintenance of drugs standards in consultation with State Governments and prevention of adulteration of food.

(4) Promoting investigations into particular health problems.

(5) Promoting through Central Council of Local Self-Government or otherwise, discussions and exchange of information on problems relating to Panchayats and other local bodies.

(6) International health relations and administration of port quarantine.

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Ministry of Health consists of a Secretariat, one attached and 15 subordinate offices. The Ministry is headed by a Minister of State. The Secretariat staff consists of (1) Secretary (2) Deputy Secretaries (3) Under-Secretaries (4) Section Officers.

The Secretariat of the Ministry is organised into the following four Divisions—(1) Planning Hospital and Drugs Division (2) Medical Division (3) Local Self-Government and International Health Division (4) House Keeping Division *viz.*, Establishment, Budget, etc.

MEDICAL & HEALTH EDUCATION—The medical education is the responsibility of the States. The Government of India's responsibility in this respect is confined to the promotion of higher medical studies and specific scheme for research and specialised training. The medical colleges were first opened in Madras and Calcutta in 1835 and recognised by the Royal College of Surgeons in 1845. Since then, there has been gradual progress of medical education in India. Practically all medical colleges offer a Doctorate of Medicine, Master of Surgery, etc. Several of the colleges are offering D.P.H. or equivalent. There is also a special provision for military medical students of the Indian Medical Department. On the recommendation of the Inter-University Board, an All-India Council of Post-Graduate medical education has been set up.

At present there are 56 medical colleges and 9 dental colleges and other institutions for training in the allopathic system of medicine. Medical Schools are being raised to the status of colleges. Departments of some medical colleges are being upgraded to provide post-graduate training for select doctors. Facilities for the training of nurses exist in practically all major hospitals in the country and in nursing colleges at Vellore and New Delhi, besides many State and non-official organisations have organised short-term courses with the help of grants from the Centre.

DRUG MANUFACTURE & CONTROL—The control over the quality of drugs, imported, manufactured, sold or distributed in the country is exercised under the *Drugs Act*, 1940 as amended in 1955 and the Rules framed thereunder. The State Governments are responsible for the control over the quality of all drugs manufactured sold or distributed in the country. *The Drugs Technical Advisory Board* constituted under the Drugs Act of 1940 is an important statutory body, advising Central and State Governments on technical matters arising out of the administration of the Drug Act of 1940. *The Drugs Consultative Committee* has been constituted under Section 7 of the Drugs Act, to advise the Central and State Governments for securing uniformity throughout India in the administration of the Act. The first Indian Pharmacopoeia was published in 1955. *The Central Drugs Laboratory, Calcutta* is a statutory institution set up under the Drugs Act of 1940, which analyses and tests samples of the Government. *National Formulary of India* has been published to serve as a handbook of reference for members of the medical profession, pharmacists and hospitals. *Medical Stores* Organisation has depots in Madras, Calcutta, Bombay and Karnal.

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They supply medical stores to their indentors, which are mainly hospitals and dispensaries run by the State Governments, local bodies, etc. The factories of the Organisation manufacture a large number of drugs and dressings. It has also a repair shop. The Training of Trade Representatives continues in Government Laboratories. *The Pharmacy Council of India* is a statutory body constituted under Sec. 3 of the Pharmacy Act of 1958. Its functions are to regulate the education of pharmacists and the profession of pharmacy. State Pharmacy Councils have been constituted in several States. *The Drugs and Magic Remedies (Objectionable Advertisements) Act*, 1954, came into force on the 30th April, 1954, which prohibits the advertisement of drugs and magic remedies for certain specified aliments, etc.

B. C. G. Vaccine Laboratory at Guindy, Madras, established in 1948, supplies B.C.G. vaccine to indentors in India and outside. *Central Research Institute, Kasuli*, established in 1906, supplies India's entire needs of vaccine for T.A.B. cholera, rabies anti-venom sera, tetanus toxoid, diphtheria anti-toxin and curative and influenza vaccine. Influenza vaccines are manufactured at the Influenza Centre, Coonoor. *Hindustan Antibiotics, Pipri and DDT Factory at Delhi* have gone into production. *Haffkine Institute at Bombay* manufactures sulpha drugs. *The Imperial Chemicel Industries and Tatas* manufacture benzene hexachloride.

DEVELOPMENT OF INDIGENOUS SYSTEMS OF MEDICINE —The Government of India have decided to recognise only the modern system of medicine, because it is international in scope and has attained highest standard of development. But the well-settled policy of the Government is to give all possible help and encouragement to the indigenous and Homoeopathic systems of medicine and incorporate from them contributions of approved value in the existing system of medicine. A committee under the Chairmanship of D. T. Dave made various recommendations for the improvement of *Ayurveda, Unani* and Homeopathy, such as five and a half year degree course etc., but the Central Council of Health held, it was not possible to lay down a uniform policy and recommended that State Governments should take practicable and desirable steps in this matter. The Government of India have established the *Central Institute of Research in Indigenous Systems of Medicine and the Post-Graduate Training Centre* in Ayurveda at Jamnagar in 1953. In 1955 the Government of India approved a five-year degree course in homoeopathy. In the second Five-Year Plan of the Central Government, a provision of Rs. 100 lakhs has been made for the development of indigenous systems of medicine including ayurveda, unani, homoeopathy and nature cure. A provision of Rs. 521.83 lakhs has also been made in the States' Plans for the development of indigenous systems of medicine, including a sum of Rs. 221.49 lakhs earmarked for the improvement of existing colleges and the establishment of new colleges in indigenous systems of medicine. In 1959 the Government of India constituted a *Central Council of Ayurvedic Research* under the Ministry of Health.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH—The medical education in India

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is a State subject. The Government of India is, however, responsible for the promotion of higher medical studies and specific schemes for research and specialised training. Medical Colleges, Dental Colleges and other medical institutions have beeen started in different parts of the country. The medical colleges are being upgarded and the post-graduate training is being widened. The following are some of the Government Institutions under the Central Government.

Central Council of Health—was started on August 9, 1952 under Article 263 of the Constitution. It considers and recommends broad lines of policy in regard to matters concerning public health in all its aspects, such as the provision of remedial and preventive care, environmental hygiene, nutrition, health education and promotion of facilities for training and research, etc. Co-ordination and integration of work at administrative levels, has, in a large measure, been achieved through the Central Council of Health.

Central Advisory Board of Health—was started in 1937, in which all State Governments are associated. It provides a forum for the purpose of discussing and formulating of public health policy and also to ensure co-operation between the Centre and the States and between State and State.

Indian Nursing Council—was inaugurated at Delhi on May 19, 1949. One of the main functions of the Council is to lay down minimum standards for the training of nurses. The Indian Nursing Council has been vested with the power to inspect training institutions are examinations. The main object of the Council is to establish a uniform standard of training for nurses, midwives and health visitors, etc. Keeping in view this purpose, the Council has prescribed a syllabus for training courses in general nursing and midwifery, for auxiliary nursing-midwives, health visitors and the B.Sc. and post-graduate courses in nursing.

Indian Medical Association—This is an all-India organization of medical practitioners of India founded in 1928-29 for the purpose of looking after the interest of medical education, public health and the medical profession in India.

Medical Council of India—was constituted in 1953 under the Indian Medical Council Act of 1953. The Council prescribes the minimum standard of medical education in medical institutions. It satisfies itself about the adequacy of the staff, equipment, accommodation, etc., provided in these colleges. If these are satisfactory, the Council recommends degrees, awarded by various universities (to which the medical colleges are affiiliated), to the Government of India for recognition by inclusion in one of the schedules of the Indian Medical Council Act.

Central Committee for Food Standards—The main functions of the Committee are to advise the Central Government and State Governments on matters arising out of the administration of the Prevention of Food Adulteration Act, 1954 and to carry on other functions enumerated in the Act.

Drugs Technical Advisory Board—Its functions are to advise the Central Government and the State Governments on technical matters arising out of the administration of the Act.

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Indian Council of Medical Research—is the agency through which Central Government has organised planned research in the country. Its research work embraces almost all the fields of medical service. This Council works for research in the field of medicine and public health. The Government of India pay an annual grant to this Council for its research activities.

Provincial Medical Councils—began to function from 1942 when the first Provincial Medical Council was started in Bombay. It is now functioning in all the States. The Provincial Councils keep register of qualified practitioners and supervise medical education and inspect examinations and exercise disciplinary powers over medical practitioners, and also advise local Governments in regard to recognition of various medical qualifications.

Dental Council of India—With the passing of Indian Dentists Act of 1948, the Council was inaugurated on May 14, 1949 for the development of dental training and practice of the profession through the establishment of the Dental Councils at the Centre and in the States, for the organization of dental services for the people in urban and rural areas. This Act was enacted to ensure that only properly qualified dental surgeons are to be registered and allowed to practise dentistry.

All-India Council of Post-Graduate Medical Education—has been constituted to prescribe standards for post-graduate medical education in the universities and offer suggestions to evolve uniformity of standards throughout the country.

National Nutrition Advisory Committee—was appointed in 1960. The Committee was established in pursuance of the recommendation of Rome Conference of F. A. O. in 1957 that the member Governments should take due account of the national need of the population in formulating and implementing policies and plans relating to food production and consumption including international trade in food.

The Central Health Education Bureau—was established in October 1955 to deal with health publicity part of the health education work. The Health Publicity Section of the Bureau undertakes to prepare health pamphlets, folders, leaflets, posters, booklets, etc. The Film Unit of the Bureau has films and film strips.

The Central Medico-Legal Advisory Committee—was set up in 1955 to advise the Central and State Governments on matters pertaining to medico-legal procedure and practice in India and to promote the development of new and modern techniques in the field of medico-legal work.

Central Health Service Scheme—A Central Health Service Scheme was constituted in 1956. It is composed of all existing class I and class II medical posts and all such posts which may be created later under the control of the Central Government, other than those under the Ministries of Railways and Defence.

Voluntary Organisations—The following are the important voluntary organisations associated with local activities—(1) *Indian Red Cross Society*, (2) *St. John's Ambulance Association*, (3) *British Empire Leprosy Relief Association*,(4) *Mission of Lepers*,

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(5) *Association for the Prevention of Blindness, Bengal,* (6) *Tuberculosis Association of India,* (7) *International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation in India.*

PREVENTION & CONTROL OF MAJOR AND TROPICAL DISEASES—*Tuberculosis*—it is estimated that nearly 25 lakh people suffer from this disease and about 5 lakhs die of it annually.

The BCG. Vaccination was started in India in 1948 with the help of International T. B. Campaign and later of the WHO and the UNICEF. In 1949, the scheme was extended to include organised groups, such as school children and factory workers in large towns. It was, however, in 1951 that BCG vaccination programme was organised on a mass scale to cover the entire susceptible population. The Government of India established a Central BCG Organisation in the Directorate-General of Health Services. A BCG Vaccine Producing Laboratory was opened in 1948 at Guindy, both for BCG and tuberculosis. Six demonstration and training centres have been established at Hyderabad, Madras, Nagpur, New Delhi, Patna and Trivandrum. With WHO-UNICEF assistance, a *National T. B. Institute* for training of workers has been established at Bangalore.

The Tuberculosis Association of India is the largest voluntary organisation in the country engaged, since its establishment in 1939, in anti-tuberculosis activities in a scientific and co-ordinated manner.

Venereal Diseases—The general estimate has shown that five to seven per cent of the people in India suffer from syphilis in Bombay, Madras and West Bengal. For the control of veneral diseases 49 clinics have been established upto now.

National Filaria Control Programme—was started in 1954-55. The measures for the control consist of (*a*) mass administration of drugs to filarious communities and (*b*) anti-mosquito measures. Forty-six control units are now functioning throughout the country. There are 400 lakhs of people suffering from filaria. A centre for practical demonstration and field-training has been established at Ernakulam.

Malaria is a serious health problem throughout India. The Government of India launched a *National Malaria Control Programme* in 1953. It was converted into *National Malaria Eradication Programme* from 1958. The work is being carried on by the Malaria Institute of India collaboration with the U.S. Technical Co-operation Mission to India and WHO. Six regional co-ordinating organisations have been established.

Influenza—A centre for influenza has been opened at the Pasteur Institute, Coonoor. A pilot plant for the production of influenza vaccine has been established.

Leprosy—It is estimated that there are over 20 lakh leprosy cases in India ; of these about four lakhs are infection. Andhra, Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Kerala and certain parts of Uttar Pradesh and Bombay are areas of high incidence. Under the Leprosy Control Scheme, four treatment and study centres of Madras, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal and 29 subsidiary centres have been established. Central Leprosy Teaching and Research Institute at Chingleput Madras has two

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hospitals—one known as Lady Willingdon Leprosy Sanatorium, Chingleput and the other, the Silver Jubilee Children's Clinic at Saidapet, Madras. The *Mission of Lepers*, started in 1875, is the largest voluntary organisation for anti-leprosy work. *Hind Kusht Niwaran Sangh* (formerly British Empire Relief Association) is also doing excellent anti-leprosy work. *The Gandhi Memorial Trust* has established a leprosy work, so also Ram Krishna Mission and Vidarbha Maharogi Seva Mandal.

Cancer—The Government is utilising all cancer research institutions of the country for treatment and research of cancer. Cancer research and treatment are being carried on by the Indian Cancer Research Centre, Bombay, Chittaranjan Cancer Research Centre, Calcutta, Tata Memorial Hospital, Bombay, Cancer Institute (W.I.A.) Madras, Cancer Institute, Kanpur, Medical College and Hospital. Trivandrum, Kamala Nehru Hospital, Allahabad, Kailash Seva Sadan, Bombay.

INDIA AND THE INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE—India is a member of the World Health Organisation since 1948. India has been receiving striking assistance from the *World Health Organisation* and *U. N. International Children's Emergency Fund.* They have done much to control and cure tuberculosis, venereal diseases, malaria and improve child health in this country. India has received assistance from WHO for Malaria Control Programme, B.C.G. Campaign now extends to every part of India. The D.D.T. and Anti-biotic Production Plants have been established with WHO and UNICEF help. Assistance has also been received in fighting yaws and filaria, for starting or strengthening various departments at training institutions like the College of Nursing, New Delhi and similar institutions in Madras, Bombay and Calcutta, the Medical Colleges at Bombay and Trivandrum and the School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta. WHO Fellowships have enabled selected candidates to receive valuable training abroad in various subjects concerning medicine and public health.

UNICEF is a specialised agency of the U.N.O., offering assistance in health programmes for expectant and nursing mothers and children. The assistance is normally given in the form of equipment and supplies.

The Government of India continues to be the member of the *International Hospital Federation* which facilitates the exchange of ideas regarding the organisation of hospitals and improvement in hospital administration.

CENTRAL LABORATORIES & MEDICAL RESEARCHES, ETC.

All India Institute of Medical Science, Delhi—was started in 1956 under an Act of the Parliament. The Institute comprises a medical college, a dental college, a nursing college, a post-graduate teaching centre and a 250-bed hospital.

All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta—Established in 1932 with the aid of an endowment from Rockefeller Foundation. The object of the Institute—(1) the training of public

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health personnel, qualifying students for public health diploma and (2) pursuits of research on several aspects of public health including study of diseases like malaria, etc.

Serological Laboratory, Calcutta, was established in 1914. The serological work relating to all States is done by the Serologist and Chemical Examiner to the Government of India. He determines by serological means the origin of blood, human or animal, causes of bleeding, injury, menstruation and grouping of blood.

School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta (1932)—The School and the Carmichael Hospital for Tropical Diseases has the following departments :—(1) Tropical Medicines, (2) Bacteriology and Pathology, (3) Protozoology, (4) Entomology, (5) Pharmacology, (6) Chemistry, (7) Anaemia and respiratory diseases department, (8) Helminthology, and (9) Public Health Laboratory Practice.

Haffkine Institute, Bombay (1900)—The Institute acts as a centre for the manufacture of plague and cholera vaccines for the manufacture of anti-rabic vaccine for Bombay Presidency. It also manufactures sulpha drugs.

B. C. G. Vaccine Laboratory, Guindy (Madras)—was started in 1948. The laboratory manufactures B. C. G. vaccines and supplies these drugs to the State Governments. It is now one of the three big laboratories in the world. The laboratory is now producing, on an average, six lakh doses of B. C. C. vaccine every year.

Central Research Institute, Kasauli (1906)—provides facilities for research. Vaccines for cholera, T A B rabies, auto vaccines, diptheria anti-toxin and anti-toxin, anti-venom sera, tetanus anti-toxins are the special products manufactured here. The Institute also undertakes research work relating to cholera, typhoid, rabies, tuberculosis and snake bites.

Hospital for Mental Diseases, Ranchi—is now under the direct control and management of the Central Government. A charge of Rs. 2,033 per annum per bed is payable by the contributing States, while for other seats the charge per bed is Rs. 400, Rs. 320 and Rs. 200 per month for class 1, 2 and 3 patients respectively.

Central Leprosy Teaching and Research Institute, Chingleput—is now controlled by the Government of India.

Hindustan Antibiotics, Ltd., Pimpri—manufactures penicillin. The factory will be able to meet almost the entire demand for penicillin in the country.

All-India Mental Health Institute, Bangalore (1954)—This Institute was inaugurated on August 6, 1954. Besides promoting post-graduate studies and research in mental health, it advises the Government of India and the States on the organisation of mental health service and act in co-ordination with national and international agencies on mental health. In 1955, the course for the Diploma in Psychological Medicine and the training course in Clinical Psychology have been started at the Institute.

King Institute of Preventive Medicine, Guindy, Madras (1903-4)—for manufacture of vaccines, therapeutic sera, vaccine lymph, blood bank, etc., and also research work.

Pasteur Institute of Southern India (1907), Coonoor.

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King Edward VII Memorial Pasteur Institute and Medical Research Institute (1907), Shillong.

Pasteur Institute, Calcutta—This institute is a part of the School of Tropical Medicine.

Pasteur Institute, Bombay—This is a part of Haffkine Institute, Bombay.

Malaria Institute of India, Delhi (1939)—conducts research into various aspects of the malaria disease and evolves appropriate techniques for controlling the havoc wrought by it. The institute trains personnel to undertake anti-malarial operations. The research work carried on at the Institute covers parasitology, chemo therapy, pathology and control of malaria and investigation on the bionomics of mosquitoes, insecticides and larvicides.

Virus Research Centre, Poona—was opened in 1953 for the study of various infections in relation to human health in India and in S.E. Asia region. It is maintained jointly by the Indian Council of Medical Research, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Government of India and the Bombay State Government.

Indian Veterinary Research Institute, Izatnagar (Barielly)—Started in 1893, it is now a fully equipped research institute for veterinary research. It also manufactures protective sera and vaccines. It has a branch station at Mukteswar. A post-graduate college in Animal Sciences was started at the Institute in 1958.

Nutrition Research Laboratory, Coonoor—conducts research on nutrition and allied problems and acts as an advisory bureau on all questions of nutrition. This Laboratory is now being shifted to Hyderabad.

Central Institute for Research on Indigenous Medicine, Jamnagar—was started by the Government of India in 1953. The Institute has a dual function to perform : firstly, to promote research in indegenous systems of medicine and secondly to provide facilities for the training of workers in the methods of such research. The Government of India has established a Post-Graduate Training Centre for Ayurveda at Jamnagar.

Vallabhbhai Patel Chest Institute, Delhi—has been newly established mainly for conducting research in diseases of the chest and in training doctors in that line. Successful candidates receive the diplomas in tuberculosis diseases (D.T.D.) from the Delhi University.

Penicillin and D.D.T. Factories, Pimpri (Poona) and Delhi respectively have gone into production.

The College of Nursing, New Delhi—was established in 1946 by the Government of India. There is Honours B.Sc. Course in Nursing Examination of the Delhi University and also Post-certificate Nursing Administration and Teaching Course Examination.

Willingdon Hospital and Nursing Home, New Delhi—This Hospital was taken over by the Government of India from New Delhi Municipal Committee in 1954.

Safdarjang Hospital, New Delhi—was taken over by the Government of India in 1954.—A venereal diseases' training centre has been established here.

Sir Tata School of Social Service, Bombay—The only institution

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in India which provides facilities for the training of social workers in the fields of family welfare, adult delinquency and industrial and labour problems.

Indian Cancer Research Institute, Bombay—was opened in 1952 with the object of instituting post-graduate teaching and research in cancer and allied subjects.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN INDIA

	Live birth rate (per 1000)	*Death rate* (per 1000)	*Infant deaths* (per 1000 births)	*Total live births* (000)	*Total deaths* (000)
1951 ..	24.9	14.4	130	6,847	3,950
1952 ..	25.4	13.8	123	7,053	3,844
1953 ..	24.8	13.0	125	7,510	4,303
1954 ..	24.4	12.5	114	7,475	3,785
1955 ..	27.0	11.7	103	6,507	2,767
1956 ..	21.6	9.8	102	6,714	3,052
1957 ..	21.5	11.6	98	7,057	3,614
1958 ..	25.1	11.3	92	5,130	2,534
1959 ..	25.7	12.1	—	—	—
1960 ..	25.7	12.1	—	—	—

(*Monthly Abstract of Statistics, September*, 1960).

NUMBER OF MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS IN INDIA, 1957

Registered medical practitioners	91,930	Nurses	31,517
Vaids, Hakims & unregistered practitioners	96,147	Midwives	33,208
		Vaccinators	5,885
Compounders	38,407	Dentists	3,614

HOSPITALS & PATIENTS

	No. of Hospitals & Dispensaries	*No. of Patients*		*No. of Hospitals & Dispensaries*	*No. of Patients*
1947 ..	3,825	43,019,772	1952 ..	9,497	110,198,788
1948 ..	4,383	54,768,123	1953 ..	9,600	116,869,535
1949 ..	5,509	85,353,126	1954 ..	9,806	113,470,494
1950 ..	4,319	66,671,549	1955 ..	9,833	126,760,302
1951 ..	5,564	82,490,434	1956 ..	9,635	134,403,903
			1957 ..	9,458	124,715,431*

INDIAN EXPECTATION OF LIFE

1951 Census (*according to actuarial report of Census*) ..	Males	32.45	years
	Females	31.66	,,
1951 (by *Kingsley Davis in his book "Population of India and Pakistan"*)	Males	32.09	,,
	Females	31.37	,,
1931 (*Official estimate by Mr. Vidyanathan*)	Males	26.91	,,
	Females	26.56	,,

*Excluding Delhi, Assam and Tripura.

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FOOD & NUTRITION

Calory requirements in India

	Net Calories		
Man (120 lb.)		Children	
Light or sedentary work	2,400	Under 1 year	100/kg.
Moderate work	3,000	1 to 3 years	900
Very hard work	3,600	3 to 5 years	1200
Woman (100 lb.)		5 to 7 years	1400
Moderate work		7 to 9 years	1700
Moderate work	2,100	9 to 12 years	2000
Very hard work	2,500	Adolescents	
Pregnancy	3,000	12 to 15 years	2400
Lactation	2,100	15 to 21 years	2400
	2,700		

(*Nutrition Advisory Committee of Ind. Research Fund Association*).

COMPOSITION OF A BALANCED DIET

	Oz.		Oz.
Cereals	14	Milk	10
Pulses	3	Sugar and Jaggery	2
Green leafy vegetables	4	Vegetable oil, ghee, etc.	2
Root vegetables	3	Fish and Meat	3
Other vegetables	3	Egg	1 egg
Fruits	3		

MEDICAL COLLEGES

Andhra Pradesh.
Andhra Medical College, Visakhapatnam.
Gandhi Medical College, Hyderabad.
Medical College, Guntur.
Medical College, Kurnool.
Osmania Medical College, Hyderabad.
Medical College, Kakinada.
Assam.
Medical College, Dibrugarh.
Bihar.
Prince of Wales Medical College, Patna.
Darbhanga Medical College, Laheriasarai.
Medical College, Ranchi.
Guzarat
B. J. Medical College, Ahmedabad.
Medical College, Baroda.
M. P. Shah Medical College, Jamnagar.
Maharastra.
Grant Medical College, Bombay.
Seth G. S. Medical College, Bombay.
T. N. Medical College, Bombay.
B. J. Medical College, Poona.
Medical College, Aurangabad.
Medical College, Nagpur.
Kerala.
Medical College, Trivandrum.
Medical College, Kozhikode.
Madhya Pradesh.
Medical College, Jabalpur.
Mahatma Gandhi Medical College, Indore.
Gajra Raja Medical College, Gwaliar.
Medical College, Bhopal.
Madras.
Madras Medical College, Madras.
Stanley Medical College, Madras.
Christian Medical College, Vellore.
Madurai Medical College, Madurai.
Mysore.
Kasturba Medical College, Madurai.
Mangalore.
Medical College, Mysore.
Medical College, Bangalore.
Karnatak Medical College, Hubli.
Orissa.
Sriram Chandra Bhanj Medical College, Cuttack.
Punjab.
Medical College, Amritsar.
Christan Medical College, Ludhiana.
Medical College, Patiala.
Rajasthan.
Sawai Man Singh M. College, Jaipur.
Uttar Pradesh.
King George Medical College, Lucknow.
Sarojini Naidu Medical College, Agra.
G. V. S. Medical College, Kanpur.
West Bengal.
Medical College, Calcutta.
R. G. Kar Medical College, Calcutta.
N. R. Sircar Medical College, Calcutta.
National Medical Institute, Calcutta.
Sammilani Medical College, Bankura.
Delhi.
Lady Hardinge M. College, New Delhi.
All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi
Maulana Azad Medical College, New Delhi.
Pondicherry.
Medical College, Pondicherry.

*Excludes Bihar, M. P. and Orissa.

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BROADCASTING IN INDIA

EARLY HISTORY—Organised broadcasting in India was started by a private concern called the "Indian Broadcasting Company", which set up stations at Bombay and Calcutta in 1927. This venture, however, did not succeed and the Company went into liquidation in 1930. Radio dealers and owners of radio sets urged Government to take some action and Government of India, after a good deal of hesitation, agreed to run these stations as an experimental measure for a short time. It was, however, in 1932, decided to continue under the administrative control of the Department of Industries and Labour. In the course of next few years, this service assumed considerable importance. In March 1935, the broadcasting organisation was constituted into a separate Department under a Controller of Broadcasting to work under the Department of Industries and Labour. In June 1936 All India Radio replaced the earlier designation of the Indian State Broadcasting Service. War gave a new fillip to broadcasting. News Services Division was consequently considerably strengthened and a number of high power transmitters were installed in Delhi for external service broadcasts. A development plan for broadcasting was also drawn up in 1946.

THE ORGANISATION—Broadcasting is the exclusive responsibility of the Central Government. All India Radio is under the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. AIR comprises the entire broadcasting system of the country. It also includes the experimental television set at Delhi. The whole organisation is controlled by a Director-General, assisted by several Deputy Directors-General and a Chief-Engineer.

There are at present 28 radio stations. They cover all important linguistic regions of the country. Each station is under the charge of a Station Director or an assistant Station Director with an engineering officer to help him in technical matters. The number of radio centres, transmitters and receiving centres in 1959 was 32,56 and 28 respectively. The radio stations are grouped as follows :—

North—Delhi, Lucknow, Allahabad, Patna, Jullundur, Jaipur-Ajmer, Simla, Bhopal, Ranchi, and Indore.

West—Bombay, Nagpur, Ahmedabad, Baroda, Poona and Rajkot.

South—Madras, Tiruchirapalli, Vijayawada, Trivandrum, Kozhikode, Hyderabad, Bangalore and Dharwar.

East—Calcutta, Cuttack and Gauhati.

PROGRAMMES—Programmes are planned keeping in view the varied tastes and requirements of listeners. The details of the programmes are given below—

(1) *Music*—Music programmes occupy about half the time of A. I. R., both Hindustani and Karnatic. *National Programme of Music* is relayed in the weekly programme, held before an invited audience in which eminent artistes of both the tradi-

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tions appear and the programme is relayed by all stations of A. I. R. *Orchestral Music*—The A I R. Vadyavrinda or orchestra keeps up the work in presenting compositions based on traditional ragas, folk tunes and thematic music. *Choral Music*—A. I. R. is encouraging choral music and group recitals. *Light Music* is being provided by all stations, but specially in the Vividh Bharati programmes. *Folk Music*—A. I. R. has made special efforts for the collection, compilation and preservation of all types of folk music from all over the country. A Central Library of folk music has also been set up. *Relays of Music Festivals*—A. I. R. continues to relay direct or after pre-recording selected items from well-known festivals. *Western Music*—is broadcast from Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi and constitutes about 2 p.c. of the total programme time. *Vividh Bharati* is an All India light variety programme introduced as an alternative to the National Programme of Music for such listeners as may not be interested in classical music. *Radio Sangit Sammelan* is an annual feature. It is a festival of music, presenting together several distinguished artistes from vari-out parts of the country. *Operatic music*—A I R is trying to develop mainly three types of operatic programmes—(1) operas of old matters (2) Folk operas (3) new compositions on old and new themes.

(2) *Spoken Word Programmes*—A. I. R. broadcasts over 10,000 talks a year in English and regional languages. They cover a variety of subjects of local, regional and national interest.

(3) *Literary Programmes*—A special contribution of A. I. R. to the country's cultural expression and strength are literary programmes in all regional languages. A national symposium of poets is held every year.

(4) *National plays, Features and Operas*—A series of national plays, feature and operas are broadcast from all stations. National features describe vividly with word, sound and music the various national projects, such as multipurpose schemes, workshops, etc. National operas attempt to revive the musical tradition which flourished in certain parts of the country.

(5) *Topical Broadcasts*—Radio has a particular advantage in reporting instantaneously on topical matters, such as important conferences, visits by VIPS, sports treats which are regularly covered in topical programmes.

(6) *Rural Broadcasts* deal with all aspects of rural life and provide useful information to villages through dialogues, discussions, plays, news talks, weather reports, etc.

(7) *Industrial Programmes*—A. I. R. broadcasts a special daily programme for industrial labour in towns and cities with a large audiences, such as Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Nagpur, Trivandrum, Lucknow and Ahmedabad.

(7) *Educational Broadcasts*—The universities have been grouped to form zonal units and panals have been set up to advise AIR on the planning and broadcasting of these programmes.

(8) *School Broadcasts*—are now arranged from 21 stations.

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School radio clubs are being formed to bring about closer and more continuous contact of the radio station with the schools concerned.

(9) *Women's and Children's Programmes*—Special programmes for women and children are broadcast by each station, in which information on house-keeping, child care, nutrition, mental health are given. Talks, short stories, plays, features, and quiz programmes, etc., are broadcast for children.

(10) *Tribal Programmes*—Regular programmes for tribal areas are now broadcast from Gauhati, Bhopal, Vijayawada and Ranchi Stations.

(11) *Troops Programme*—Armed Forces programmes are broadcast from Delhi, Srinagar and Jammu.

(12) *News Services*—AIR broadcasts daily 76 news bulletins —46 in the Home Services and 30 in the External Services. News bulletins in Home Services of AIR are broadcast in English and Hindi four times a day; in Bengali, Oriya, Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, Malayalam, Punjabi, Assamese and Urdu three times a day; in Kashmiri and Dorgi twice a day and in Gorkhali once a day. A bulletin is also broadcast for troops in Hindi once a day. Daily commentaries are also broadcast in Kashmiri, Urdu and Bengali. Regional news bulletins are also broadcast from several stations.

(13) *Community Broadcasts*—Rural areas in India are not yet easily accessible and have limited opportunities for education and entertainment. Radio, therefore, assumes an important role in informing and entertaining the population living in these areas. AIR broadcasts special programmes to the rural listners. State governments have provided listening facilities in many of the villeges in their States. Folk songs find a prominent place in these broadcasts. Upto March 1958, 36,661 community receivers have been supplied by various States.

(14) *External Services*—External Services programmes are broadcast in Indian and foreign languages to listeners abroad. The Division broadcasts for over 22 hours per day. The broadcasts are divided into two categories—those for Indians and people of Indian descent abroad and those for non-Indians.

(15) *Monitoring Service*—Monitoring is a process of listening to what broadcasts from other nations say on national and international affairs and taking note of them. At present the Monitoring Service covers about 100 broadcasts per day from 25 foreign stations in nine languages.

(16) *Transcription and Programme Exchange Service*—With a view to placing the work of transcription, programme exchange, library and archives on an organised footing, a Unit was set up in 1960 under the Director of Transcription and Programme Exchange Service. The main function of the Programme Exchange Unit is to collect recording and scripts of programmes from various stations in different languages, to bring out a weekly bulletin giving particulars of selected programmes in every language and to circulate programmes among stations. A Central Tape Library of Recordings has been established.

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TRAINING FACILITIES FOR STAFF—A Staff Training School has been set up at New Delhi, which offers general as well as specialised courses of training to professional broadcasters as well as to the programme staff of All India Radio. Courses are also held for training persons as announcers for railway stations on behalf of the Ministry of Railways.

An Engineering Staff Training School was set up in 1958 to train new recruits who have sufficient practical and theoretical background of radio engineering and to provide refresher courses to engineers who have spent considerable time on the practical side of A.I.R.

SONG AND DRAMA DIVISION—The Song and Drama Division was constituted by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting in 1954 and was transferred to the AIR in 1956. It is responsible for publicising India's Five-Year Plans through the popular media of drama ballet and folk song. Drama performances, Kavi Sammelan, folk dance programme, puppet shows, opera, qawali, etc., are carried on under this programme.

ADVISORY COMMITTEES—Various Advisory Committees have been constituted by AIR with the object of assisting the same in the planning and presentation of different categories of programmes. *The Central Advisory Committee* advise AIR on general principles of planning and presentation of programmes. *Central Advisory Board for Music* lays down the music policy for the guidance of AIR. At the stations there are (1) *Programme Advisory Committee* (2) *Rural Advisory Committee* (3) *Consultative Panels for Educational Broadcasts* (4) *Panels for University Programmes*, where public opinion is associated with the planning and presentation of programmes.

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JOURNALS AND PUBLICATIONS—Radio Programme journals are published in English and seven languages, viz., English Urdu, Hindi, Bengali, Tamil, Telegu and Gujarati for home listeners and journals and Bulletins in 9 foreign languages for overseas listeners. Besides radio journals, A.I.R.'s. spoken-read material is brought out out in suitable books and pamphlets by the Publications Division.

RESEARCH—To solve technical problems concerning broadcasting in India, a special department has been created. Field strength measurements of various stations are undertaken to study propaga-

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tion conditions over short and long distances of both medium and short waves. Ionospheric data are regularly compiled to explore frequencies which would give optimum reception to AIR's home as well as external broadcasts. Fading and atmospherics which interfere with broadcast reception are also studied. The Research unit pays special attention to the development of indigenous acoustic materials and low frequency absorbing systems for effecting improvements in AIR studios.

MAINTENANCE—It is of utmost importance that equipment of various kinds, which make broadcasting possible are kept in an excellent condition. The Station Engineer of each Station looks after the maintenance work of his station and the unified control is exercised by the Maintenance Engineer at Delhi. He is responsible for the overall upkeep of the broadcasting system. His office handles all problems connected with the maintenance of existing transmitters and receiving centres, power supply arrangements, valves, aerials, studios, etc. Systematic effort is being made for carrying on repairs of certain categories of specialised equipment which used to be sent abroad till recently.

TELEVISION—Experimental television station was established by the Government at New Delhi on September 15, 1959. This service is in the nature of a pilot project, consisting of two programmes in a week and is available within a range of 12 miles.

DOMESTIC RECEIVER SETS IN INDIA

1927	.. 3,954	1951	.. 6,35,026	1955	..	9,47,353
1947	.. 2,48,274	1952	.. 6,94,560	1956	..	10,75,900
1948	.. 2,86,046	1953	.. 7,69,505	1957	..	12,30,814
1949	.. 3,69,728	1954	.. 8,35,246	1958	(August)	12,91,812
1950	.. 5,07,324					

OTHER KINDS OF SETS
(Community, school, crystal, blind, etc.)

	No. of sets		*No. of sets*
1947	.. 27,681	1953	.. 68,244
1948	.. 32,944	1954	.. 71,948
1949	.. 38,332	1955	.. 82,463
1950	.. 38,995	1956	.. 1,00,611
1951	.. 50,482	1957	.. 1,16,402
1952	.. 64,060	1958	.. 1,09,625

PRODUCTION OF INDIAN RADIO SETS

	No. of sets		*No. of sets*
1953	.. 56,300	1956	.. 1,50,596
1954	.. 58,203	1957	.. 1,90,690
1955	.. 81,200	1958	.. 1,91,091
		1959 (upto May)	59,978

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INDIA'S POWER SUPPLY

POWER-GENERATION IN INDIA—Generation of power is essential for the industrial development of India, because the economic prosperity of the country mainly depends upon it. In this respect, compared to progressive countries, India lags far behind. The annual per capita generation of electricity in India is only 39 kwh., compared to Norway's 7,250 kwh., Canada's 5,780 kwh., the U.K.'s 1,910 kwh., Japan's 875 kwh.

Power can be derived from oil, coal, water and wind movements. Our mineral-oil reserves are almost negligible, and production of power through oil is an imposibility. So far as coal is concerned, India has, no doubt, fairly large reserve of coal, but it would be uneconomical if we are to waste coal reserves for the production of power ; moreover, well-known coal-bearing areas are far away from the coal fields and coal costs much due to high cost of transport. As for water power, it may be said that water is inexhaustible, whereas coal or mineral oil is wasting asset, and the water besides being inexhaustible is the cheapest of all.

The latest estimates put the hydro-electric power potential of India at 410 lakh kw. Generally speaking, the snow-fed rivers rising in the Himalayas along the length of Kashmir to Assam and the heavy rainfall on Western Ghats are the main sources of hydro-powers in India.

The peculiar feature of the Indian rivers is the seasonal variation of their flow from almost nothing during the dry season to several hundreds of thousands of cusec during monsoon. This naturally involves the construction of dams to store sufficient water to be utilised during periods of lean flow. India is essentially an agricultural country and has to depend for irrigation on rivers fed by monsoon rain. Here is a fundamental clash of interests between the needs of irrigation and electricity. So in many cases, projects have to be undertaken as a joint irrigation-cum-electricity measure.

FUNCTION AND ADMINISTRATION OF IRRIGATION AND POWER—The Ministry of Irrigation and Power is responsible for the following functions relating to (1) *Power* (2) *Irrigation* (3) *Flood control* (4) *River valley projects.*

Besides laying down the general policy for the development of water and power resources, the Ministry performs the following, among other functions—

(1) Watching the progress of the projects in the Irrigation and Power sector and of costs against estimates ;

(2) Examination of schemes formulated by the States for inclusion in the plan ;

(3) Formulation of integrated flood control programmes in consultation with the States which have a flood problem and assistance to the States in executing flood projection works ;

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(4) Study of the International aspects of utilisation of water resources.

(5) Optimum utilisation of machinery, equipment and skilled personnel ; and

(6) Formulation of measures to ensure efficiency and economy in the execution of River Valley Projects.

CENTRAL WATER AND POWER COMMISSION—This Commission was created in 1951. The Commission is responsible for initiating and co-ordinating schemes for multipurpose river development, for preparing integrated plans for thermal power development, transmission and utilization of electric energy and navigation and for tackling the flood problem. The Commission consists of a Chairman with two members for the *water wing* and two members for the *power wing*. It is assisted by two Chief Engineers who are in-charge of the *flood wing*. The Commission renders expert advice only to the State Governments, but to some neighbouring countries as well.

The Power Wing has been divided into following Directorates—

(1) Hydro-electric (2) Thermal (3) System Planning (4) Transmission (5) Rural electrification (6) Load Survey and Load Development (7) Technical Examination, Co-ordination and Research (8) Plant Construction and Procurement (9) Commercial (10) Union Territories (11) Power Engineering Research (unit).

ORGANISATION FOR POWER DEVELOPMENT—The Electricity (Supply) Act was passed in 1948 to ensure rapid and orderly generation of electricity. It provides for the setting up of a Central Electricity Authority for the whole country and State Electricity Boards for regions. The Central Electricity Authority was constituted in 1950 and the State Electricity Boards have been set up in Delhi, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Mysore, Uttar Pradesh, Kerala, Madras, Rajasthan, Assam, Bihar and the Punjab.

Electricity Boards—*Central Electricity Authority* has been set up under Section 3 of the Electricity (Supply) Act of 1948 to perform the following functions—(1) To develop a sound, adequate and uniform rational power policy (2) to act as arbitrator in matters of dispute arising between the State Governments or the Board (3) to carry on investigations and to collect and record data concerning the generation, distribution and utilization of power and development of power resources (4) to publish information secured under the Act and to provide for publication of reports and investigations.

Central Electricity Board—was constituted under Section 3 of the Electricity (Supply) Act of 1948 and it is responsible for making rules to regulate the generation, transmission, supply, and use of electrical energy and for prescribing forms of applications, licences and allied matters.

State Electricity Boards—have been formed in many States. These Boards are required to rationalise the production and supply of electricity in their respective areas, to give bulk supplies of power to existing licensed undertakings and retail power wherever necessary

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and direct licensees to achieve maximum economy and efficiency in the operation of their undertakings.

Central Board of Irrigation and Power—This Board continues to function as a central co-ordinating authority for research work in the field of hydraulic and hydro-electric engineering. It is an autonomous body. There are many research stations guided by the Board. The Board has also a Research Committee attached to it to co-ordinate research in irrigation, hydro-electric and allied subjects.

ELECTRICITY DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA—Broadly speaking, most of the electrical developments in India have so far been limited to satisfying the demand of urban areas. This has led to a lopsided development of our economy. It may be pointed out that six large cities—Bombay, Calcutta, Ahmedabad, Kanpur, Madras and Delhi, account for 30 per cent of the country's installed capacity and 30 p.c. of the generated energy.

At the beginning of the first Five-Year Plan in 1951, the number of villages (with less than 10,000 population) supplied with electricity was 3075. At the end of the First Plan in 1956, the number increased to 6,500 and at the end of Second Plan, it is estimated, electricity will be supplied to 16,500 villages.

The pattern of electricity development in India is mainly hydro, mainly thermal and partly thermal and partly hydro. The electrical development of Mysore, Kerala, Punjab, Orissa, Jammu and Kashmir is mainly hydro. In Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Bihar and West Bengal, it is mainly thermal; whereas electrical development of Bombay, Madras, Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Assam is partly thermal and partly hydro. Madras leads the rest of India in rural electrification. Nearly 8,000 villages have so far been electrified.

There are 142 power development schemes in the public sector in the First Plan including multi-purposes river valley projects. The principal power schemes now in operation during First Plan are—*Nangal* (Punjab)—48,000 kw.; *Bokaro* (Bihar)—1,50,000 kw.; *Chola* (Bombay)—54,000 kw.; *Khaperkheda* (M.P.)—30,000 kw.; *Moyar* (Madras)—36,000 kw.; *Madras City Plant Extensions* (Madras)—30,000 kw.; *Machkund* (Andhra—Orissa)—34,000 kw.; *Pathri* (U.P.)—20,000 kw.; *Sarda* (U.P.)—41,000 kw.; *Sengulam* (Kerala)—48,000 kw.; *Jog* (Mysore)—72,000 kw.

TOWN AND VILLAGE ELECTRIFICATION, (1959)

Population range	*No. of towns and villages in this group*	*Towns and & villages with public electricity*	*P.c. of towns and villages with electric supply*
Over 1,00,000	73	73	100.00
50,000—1,00,000	112	112	100.00
10,000— 50,000	1,257	933	74.22

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Below 10,000	5,59,666	13,860	2.48
	5,61,108	14,978	2.67

ELECTRIC ENERGY GENERATED AND SOLD IN INDIA

(Energy in millions of Kilo-Watt hours)

	No. of concerns	*Generated*	*Sold*		*No. of concerns*	*Generated*	*Sold*
1951-52	573	5,448.1	4,849.0	1956-57	769	9,877.8	8,103.1
1952-53	614	6,301.4	5,134.3	1957-58	834	11,176.9	9,011.1
1953-54	648	6,876.8	5,572.7	1958-59	813	12,813.0	10,360.7
1954-55	686	7,760.9	6,319.2	1959-60	850	15,029.2	12,130.8
1955-56	715	8,805.8	7,185.8				

INDIAN IRRIGATION

USEFULNESS OF INDIAN IRRIGATION—The two chief characteristics of rainfall in the country are its unequal distribution in different regions and uneven precipitation in different years. The variation in distribution ranges from an average of as high as 460 inches in a region in Assam, to as low as three inches or so in arid Rajasthan ; the average for the whole country being a little over 42 inches. Because of the uncertainty of rainfall, Indian agriculture has been described as a "gamble in the monsoon." The result has been that agricultural development in India has not kept pace with the growth of population. To make the country self-sufficient in food production, it is, therefore, necessary that the area under cultivation must be increased by the provision of greater irrigation facilities throughout the country.

Inda's water resources have been calculated at about 13,000 lakh acre-feet, of which approximately one-third is utilisable. As a result of implementation of the major and medium irrigation schemes involving an outlay of Rs. 375 crores in the First Five-Year Plan, the irrigation potential of the country was raised by 5.3 million acres by the end of the Plan Period. The Second Plan provides a sun of Rs. 388 crores, taking the total irrigation potential during First and Second Plans to 13 million acres.

The water supplies for irrigation are obtained from three sources :—

(1) directly from the waters flowing in natural streams ;
(2) from the storage of flood waters of these streams or directly from storage of rain water in small tanks ; and

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(3) from the underground subsoil reservoir.

MINISTRY OF IRRIGATION AND POWER—This Ministry of the Government of India was constituted in 1952. Besides laying down the general policy for the development of water and power resources, the Ministry performs the following, among other functions—

(1) Watching the progress of execution of projects in the Irrigation and Power sector and of costs against estimates.

(2) Examination of schemes formulated by the States for inclusion in the Plan.

(3) Study of the international aspects of utilisation of water resources.

(4) Optimum utilisation of plants and mechinery available with State Governments/project authorities.

(5) Formulation of measures to ensure efficiency and economy in the execution of River Valley Projects ; and

(6) Arranging for foreign exchange requirements of the Projects.

State Govenments are responsible for investigating, formulating and executing irrigation, power and flood control schemes.

ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS—The following are the administrative Units of the Ministry—

(1) *Central Water and Power Commission*—This is responsible for initiating and co-ordinating schemes for multi-purposes river development, for preparing integrated plans for thermal power development, transmission and utilisation of electric energy, and navigation, and for tackling the flood problem. The Commission consists of a Chairman with two members of the Water Wing and two members for the Power Wing. It is assisted by two Chief Engineers who are in-charge of the Flood Wing. For the effective discharge of its functions the Wings of the Commission have been divided into following Directorates and cells—

Water wing—(1) Administration and co-ordination (2) Water ways, Irrigation and Navigation (3) Technical Examination (4) Plant and Machinery (5) Dams (6) Canals (7) Cost Control Cell (8) Central Water & Power Research Station, Poona.

Flood Wing—(1) Investigations (2) Flood Control Designs (3) Hydrology and Statstics (4) Silt and Construction materials.

Power Wing—(1) Hydro-electric (2) Transmission (4) Rural Electrification (5) Union Territories (6) Road Survey (7) Techinical Examination Co-ordination & Research (8) Plant Construction & Procurement (9) System Planning (10) Commercial (11) Planning Cell (Madras) (12) Foreign Exchange Cell (Delhi).

FLOOD CONTROL BOARDS WORKS AND RIVER COMMISSIONS—Due to unprecedented floods in the different parts of the country in monsoon season, the Government of India have established Central Flood Control Board. There are also Flood Control Boards in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Jammu & Kashmir, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal and River Commissions (Floods) for Brahmaputra, Ganga, North-West rivers and Central India rivers.

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A High level Committee on Floods was set up by the Government of India in 1957.

(2) The rest of the irrigation is done through *tanks, surface percolation wells, tube-wells,* etc. The term minor applies to this type of irrigation.

(*a*) Surface Percolation wells exist all over the country.

(*b*) Tanks and Reservoirs—The water collects either in natural depression on the beds of streams or dammed up and shallow basins created for storing water.

(*c*) Flood irrigation and inundation irrigation are the other sources of minor irrigation in India. The monsoon flood water of rivers is diverted to lands which are above the level of the ordinary supply in a river. The flood water soaks the lands and the moisture retained in the soil allows cultivation of a winter season crop, which otherwise would not be possible.

(*d*) Tube-wells—This means lifting of water from underground by means of mechanical pumps.

The irrigation is again divided into three classes by the Government :—

(1) *Productive*—The capital for the construction and extension of this class is provided out of borrowed money or by appropriation from Famine Insurance Grant, and which is expected to yield within ten years of their completion sufficient revenue to pay their working expenses as well as the interest on the capital expended on their construction.

(2) *Unproductive*—Unproductive works are those which yield a net revenue which is less than the percentage fixed for productive works. These are constructed primarily as protection against famine, and the cost of construction is provided out of current revenues or by appropriation from Famine Insurance Grant.

(3) *Minor*—These are small works for which detailed capital or revenue accounts are not maintained; such works may be productive or unproductive.

Dams and Barrages—It is necessary to understand the difference between a dam and a barrage in connection with River Valley projects. Any obstruction built to stem the flow of water in a stream is a dam and from this point of view, a barrage also is a dam. But a dam has come to be synonymous with a comparatively high structure built to form a reservoir and a barrage with a structure which controls and regulates the flow of water.

RIVER VALLEY PROJECTS

Bhakra-Nangal Project—It is the largest multi-purposes project in India. The project comprises two big dams, a vast network of canals, four power houses and a large number of transmission lines with scores of sub-stations spread over the Punjab, Pepsu, Rajasthan, Himachal Pradesh and Delhi. It is located in the Hoshiarpur district in the Punjab. It will have a dam about one mile from Nangal Township (Nangal dam) and a main dam, 8 miles upstream across Sutlej river.

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Bhakra-Nangal Project consists of—(1) (*a*) Bhakra dam, 740 ft. high which is the highest gravity dam in the world. (*b*) Two power houses at the foot of the dam (*c*) Two 50 ft. diameter concrete-lined diversion tunnels, each half a mile long (2) Nangal Dam, 90 ft. high (3) Nangal Hydel-Channel, 40 miles long (4) Two power houses on the Hydel Channel at Ganguwal and Kotla (5) Bhakra Irrigation Canals and Distribution System (6) Remodelling of Ruper Headworks and the Sirhind Canal (7) Bist Doad Canal and (8) Transmission System.

All works except the Bhakra Dam and its power houses have been completed. The revised estimate of the Bhakra-Nangal Project is Rs. 170.02 crores.

Damodar Valley Corporation—The aim of this multi-purposes project is to tame the turbulent Damodar and its tributaries which overflow their banks and bring destruction, misery to large parts of Bihar and Bengal. It is a joint venture undertaken by the West Bengal, Bihar and Central Governments. It comprises four storage dams : *Tilaiya, Konar, Maithon* and *Panchet* with a hydel power houses of a total capacity of 1,04,000 kw. attached to all dams except Konar, three thermal stations at Bokaro, Durgapur and Chandrapura with a total capacity of 5,00,000 kw., and extensive power transmission gird and in irrigation barrage at Durgapur with canals and distributaries.

Tilaiya Dam is located about 12 miles from Kodarma railway station across the Barakar river. It is a straight gravity concrete dam with a height of 99 ft. above river bed and with a length of 1,200 feet.

Konar Dam is located in Hazaribagh district in Bihar State, across the Konar river. The Das is of straight gravity type, concrete with earthen flanks. Its length is 910 ft. and height 160 ft. above the river bed. The storage capacity of the reservoir is 273,000 acre ft. (gross), and the waterspread is 10.3 sq. miles. It is expected that generating plant of 40,000 will be installed. The cost of the dam is estimated at Rs. 9.94 crores.

Maithon Dam is situated 16 miles from Asansol railway station in the Barakar river. It is a rolled earth dam with concrete spillway. The height of the Dam is 182 ft. above foundation of the concrete dam and 164 ft. above foundation of the earth dam. Power is 60,000 kw.

Panchet Hill Dam—is in Dhanbad district of Bihar, across the Damodar river. It is the largest of the dams in the Damodar Valley. The Dam is of straight graivty type, earth-*cum*-concrete. Its height is 157 feet above foundation. Storage capacity of the reservior is 1,365,000 acre-feet with the waterspread of 64 sq. miles. It is designed primarily for flood control with power generation of 40,000 kw. The Dam was inaugurated in December, 1956.

Durgapur Barrage—is situated about a mile from Durgapur railway station and 25 miles from Asansol across Damodar river. The barrage is of concrete type with a height of 38 ft. and a length of 2,271 ft. It has 85-mile long canal on the left, 55-mile long canal on the right, 1,410 miles of other canals and distributaries. The

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canal on the left bank is navigable, connecting coal-mining areas around Raniganj with Hooghly, about 35 miles above Calcutta.

Bokaro Power House is about 12 miles downstream of the Konar dam in Bihar. It has generating units of 50,000 kw. each at present. The Power House gives additional power for iron and steel works at Jamshedpur and Burnpur copper mines at Ghatsila, coal mines of West Bengal and Bihar, the new cement works and engineering industries in and around Asansol and for Sindri and Calcutta city.

Machkund Project—The Machkund scheme is a joint venture between the States of Orissa and Andhra Pradesh. The two States share the capital outlay and power benefit in the ratio of 30 : 70 respectively. The location of the scheme is 120 miles north-west of Visakhapatnam across the Machkund river of the Godavari system in Andhra Pradesh. It comprises a dam at Jalaput, a diversion dam 14 miles downstream across the river and a power house. The Dam is masonry and 176 feet high above foundation (main dam) and its length is 1,345 feet (main dam) and 1,037 (diversion dam). The storage capacity of the reservoir is 27,200 mil. cu. ft. Three generating units, each with a capacity of 17,000 kw., are already operating ; three more units of 21,250 kw. each are under installation.

Chambal Project—Chambal Project, a joint venture of Rajasthan and Madhya Bharat, involves the construction of three dams across the Chambal with power house at each, a barrage near Kota, with canals on both sides for irrigation. The execution of the project has been planned in three stages. The first stage of the project consists of—

(1) *Gandhi Sagar Dam* at the border of Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan States. The dam will be 204 feet high and 1,685 feet long at the top and will create a storage of 6.85 million acre feet. (2) A Power House at the Gandhi Sagar Dam to accommodate five units of 23,000 kw. each—three units being installed in the first stage. (3) 923 miles of Transmission Lines in both the States. (4) Kotah Barrage. (5) Canals on both sides of the river—162 miles in Rajasthan and 398 miles in Madhya Pradesh.

Tungabhadra Project—was started in 1945 as a joint enterprise of the States of Madras and Hyderabad but due to the reorganisation of States, it is now a joint venture of Andhra Pradesh and Mysore. The Project consists of a masonry dam across the Tungabhadra, 127-mile long canal with a Power House on the left side and a 225-mile long Canal called the Low Level canal with two Power Houses on the right side. An area of 6.71,600 acres in Mysore and 1,56,900 acres in Andhra Pradesh will receive irregation benefit. Under the final scheme, 1,08,000 kw. of power will be generated. Almost all the main works have been completed, such as, the main dam, two power houses on the right side, Low Level Canal, distribution system in Andhra Pradesh, etc.

Hirakud Dam Project (Stage I)—This project harnesses the Mahanadi and will provide irrigation to 6.7-lakh acres of land in Sambalpur and Bolangir. It is located in Sambalpur district in Orissa State. The earth dam, the largest in the world was inagurated in January, 1957. The Hirakud Project consists of a three-mile long dam with a

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maximum height of 200 feet and a reservoir with a gross storage capacity of 6.6 million acre-feet. Irrigation will be extended to 6.72-lakh acres in Sambalpur and Blangir districts of Orissa and to 18.7-lakh acres in Cuttack and Puri districts. The power house located at the foot of the dam will have an installed capacity of 1,23,000 kw. Under the second phase, now in hand, generating sets capable of producing kw. at Chiplima and an additional unit of 37,500 kw. at hte main dam power house will be installed by 1961.

Bhadra—It is located in the Chickmagalur district in Mysore State, near Lakkavalli village, across the Bhadra river. The type of the dam is straight gravity. The height of the masonry dam is 252 ft. above foundation and earth dam is 109 ft. above the river bed. There are two canals of 212 miles long. It will irrigate 2.34-lakh acres of land in Shimaga, Chikmagsur, Chitaldung and Bellary districts and will have power station with an installed capacity of 33,200 kw.

Malampuzha Project—This project consists of a dam across Malampuzha river at the foot of the Western Ghats, three miles east of Olavakkot Railway Station and a main left bank canal about 20 miles long with branch channels to irrigate the Malabar district of Kerala. The dam has been completed and irrigation was extended to 35,000 acres in Sept., 1955.

Manimuthar—This project, which will irrigate large acres in the Tirunelveli district of Madras, consists of a dam (largely earth) across the river Manimuthar and a canal taking off from the right side of the reservoir. The entire project is expected to cost Rs. 3.05 crores.

Periyar—The Periyar river which rises on the border of Travancore-Cochin and Madras, has a total fall of about 1,200 ft. in its descent to the plains. This fall is to be utilised to generate 105,000 kw. of power for the Madras grid system. The scheme will ultimately cost about Rs. 10.48 crores.

Lower Bhavani Project—This is one of the most notable projects of Madras. Bhavani is a tributary of the Cauveri and has a major portion of its course in the Coimbatore district. It is located in Coimbatore district in Madras, across the Bhavani river. The height of the Dam is 204 ft. masonry and 120 ft. earth and its length is 28,862 ft. There is a 124-mile canal on the right side. It was started in 1949 and completed in 1956.

Koyna Hydro-electric Scheme—This Scheme will be developed in three stages. The first stage comprises a rubble concrete dam across the Koyna river built to part height, and an underground power house fed by a water conduit system taking off from the Koyna lake, to generate 2,40,000 kw. of power at 60 p.c. load factor and produce 1,262 million kwh per year. It includes a double circuit 220 kv transmission line to Trombay (near Bombay) to be tied up with the Tata Power System at that place. Preliminary works have been completed.

Kakrapara Project—This project is located at Kakrapara 50 miles upstream of Surat in Bombay State, across the Tapti river. The type of the weir is stone masonry with 45 feet above foundation with a length of 2,030 feet. Canals are scheduled to be completed in 1963.

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The project will irrigate 6,53-lakh acres. The scheme was started in 1949. Weir was completed in 1955. Canal system is expected to be completed by 1965.

Mayurakshi Project (Canada Dam)—It is mainly an irrigation scheme, though it provides for the installation of a 4,000 kw. hydro-electric plants. This scheme is located at Messanjore, 20 miles north-west of Suri, the headquarters of Birbhum district in West Bengal, across Mayurakshi river. The description of the Dam is as follows : *Type*—Masonry gravity. *Height*—155 ft. (Maximum), *Length*—2,170 ft. and *Spillway*—740 ft. long. There is a barrage 20 miles down the dam known as the Tilpara barrage, 1,013 ft. long. There are two canals, 75 miles long each, taking off from either side of the barrage and a canal from the dam. The total length of the canal system is about 850 miles. This will irrigate 7.2 lakh acres annually. It was started in 1946 and completed in 1956.

Rihand Dam Project—The Rihand Project comprises a concrete gravity dam about 28 miles south of its confluence with the Son river near Pipri village in Mirzapur district. The dam will be about 3,065 ft. long and 3,065 ft. high above the river Rihand. The reservoir will have a gross storage of 86-lakh acre-feet. The power station at the base of the dam will house five generating sets of 50,000 kw. each.The total estimated cost is about Rs. 46.05 crores. The dam is expected to be completed by 1961.

Kosi Project—envisages a barrage across the Kosi river, three miles above Hanumantnagar in Bihar, and construction of flood banks on either side for confining the river in the middle reach. The main features of the Kosi scheme are—*Unit I*—Hanumantnagar Barrage and Headworks. A barrage is being constructed across the Kosi river about 3 miles the village Hanumantnagar in Nepal. *Unit II*—Flood embankments (about 152 miles in length) along both the banks of the river, have already been completed. *Unit III—Eastern Kosi Canal*) which will take off from Humantnagar Barrage. It will have four branches, namely, Murliganj Branch, Jankinagar Branch, Banmankhi Branch and Araria Branch.

Nagarjunasagar Project I—is located in Nalgonda district in Andhra Pradesh , 1½ miles below the Nandikonda village, across the Krihsna. It is a scheme of the Andhra Pradesh Government and comprises the construction of a masonry dam on the Krishna river near Nandikonda village and two canals, one on each side of the river. The Right Bank Canal, 135 miles long will irrigate 9.7 lakh acres. The Left Bank Canal, 108 miles long will irrigate an area of 7.9 lakh acres. An additional area of 3 lakh acres in the Krishna delta will also be brough under irrigation. The project is expected to be completed by the year 1963-64.

Kangsabati—is located in Bankura district in West Bengal. It is one mile from Ambikanagar across the Kangsabati and Kumari rivers. It has earth dam with saddle spillway. The height of the dam is 126 feet above foundation with a length of about 6 miles (including dykes and spillways). The storage capacity of the reservoir is 920,000 acre-feet with a waterspread of 45 sq. miles. There will be 232.5 mile canal system with two main canals.

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Kundah, Stages I & II—is located in the Nilgiri district of Madras State in the Kundah basin (across the Avalanche, Emerald streams of Kundah and Regumbuhalla stream).

Sharavati Power Project, Stage I—is located near Linganamakki village, 8 miles below the Hirebhas dam in Mysore, across the Sharavati river. The type of the dam is gravity, with a height of 152 ft. maximum and length of 1,270 ft. The reservoir capacity is 44,152 mil. cu. ft.

Kadana (Mahi-Stage II)—is located about 2 miles upstream of Kadana village in Santrampur taluka of Panch Mahal district in Bombay State, across the Mahi. The dam is of masonry type with a height of 255 feet approximate and with a length of 3,750 ft. The storage capacity of the reservoir is 80,000 mil. cu. ft.

Kobra Thermal Power Station—is situated at Kobra, near Champ, in Bilaspur district of Madhya Pradesh. The benefits that will be derived from this project are: three generating units of 30,000 kw. each. Bhilai Steel Works will receive 50,000 kw. from this station. The cost is estimated at Rs. 12.34 crores.

Rajasthan Canal Project—envisages the construction of a 415 mile long canal with a head capacity of 18,500 cusecs. The canal will take off form Harike Barrage, which along with the head regulator of the canal was completed in 1953. The Rajasthan Canal will be the biggest and the longest irrigation system in the world and will be in two parts—(1) *Rajasthan Feeder*, 134 miles long, of which the first 110 miles will be in the Punjab territory (2) *Rajasthan Canal*, 281 miles long, lying in Rajasthan territory. The canal system will extend practically upto the old historical town of Jaisalmer and on full development, will irrigate 26.20 lakh acres of land annually.

PRINCIPAL IRRIGATION PROJECTS—1st and 2nd Plans

Bakhra Nangal (Punjab & Rajasthan).
Damodar Valley (Beng. & Bihar).
Hirakud (Stage I) (Orissa).
Chambal (Stage I—Rajasthan & M. P.).
Tungabhadra (Andhra and Mysore).
Bhadra (Mysore).
Kosi (Bihar).
Nagarjunsagar (Stage I—Andhra Pradesh).
Kankrapara Canal (Bombay).
Tungabhadra (Stage I—Andhra Pradesh & Mysore).
Ukai (Bombay).
Jaua (M. P.).
Purna (Bombay).
Vamsadhara (Andhra Pradesh).
Narmada (Bombay)
Banas (Bombay).
Girna (Bombay).
New Kattalia (Madras).
New Khadakvasla (Bombay).
Salandi (Orissa).
Gurgaon Canal (Punjab).
Kangsabati (Bengal).
Chandrakeshar (M.P.).
Kabini (Mysore).
Banas (Rajasthan).
Bhadar (Bombay).
Boothathankettu (Kerala).
Lider Canal (J. & K.).
Barna (M. P.).
Laxmnathirtha (Mysore).
Upper Ken (M. P.).
Vidur (Pondicherry & Madras).

MAJOR IRRIGATION WORKS

Andhra Pradesh—Romperu drainage (1956), Godavari delta system (1890), Krishna delta

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(1898), Rallapad (1957), Nizamsagar (1930), Godavari (stage I

Bihar—Sone Canals (1954), Tribani Canal Extension (1958-59).

Bombay—Nira Left bank canal (1906), Nira right bank canal (1938), Pravara river works (1926), Gangapur reservoir (1952), Rangola (1952), Brahmani (1954), Moj (1958), Aji (1957-58), Machhu I (1959-60).

Jammu & Kashmir—Sind Valley (1956).

Kerala—Kuttanad (1956), Peechi (1957-58), Neyyar (1959-60), Malanpusha (1959-60), Walayar reservoir (1958-59).

Madhya Pradesh—Tandula Canals (1925), Mahanadi Canals (1927).

Madras—Perinchani (1956), Periyar (1897), Kavari Mettur (1934), Lower Bhavani (1956), Araniar reservoir (1957).

Mysore—Krishnarajasagar Canal (1930), Tunga Anicut (1958-59), Nugu (1958-59), Ghataprabha left bank canal (1958-59).

Orissa—Rushi-kulya canal (1895).

Punjab—Western Jamuna Canal (1886), Upper Bari Doab canal (1878-79), Sirhind canal (1886-87), Eastern Canal (1933), Nangal barrage (1954).

Rajasthan—Jawai Project (1958-59), Parbati Project (1959-60), Meja Project (1960-61).

Uttar Pradesh—Ganga Canal, Agra Canal (1891), Lower Ganga Canal (1891), Sarda Canal (1930), Sarda Canal Extension (1955-56), Saroda Canal reservoir (1960-61), Meta Tila (Stage I, 1957-58).

West Bengal—Damodar canal (1935), Mayurakshi (1956-57). —1958-59).

INSURANCE IN INDIA

NATIONALIZATION OF INSURANCE—It is unique in the annals of life insurance all the world over, that the Government of India took over from 1956 the life insurance business in its own hands. It is the largest Government-owned organisation in the world, operating life insurance. The Life Insurance Corporation of India, is a statutory body, which came into existence on September 1, 1956.

As a first step in this direction, the Life Insurance (Emergency Provisions) Ordinance was promulgated by the President on January, 19, 1956, vesting in the Government of India, with immediate effect, the management of the life insurance business in India of both Indian and foreign insurances and the foreign life insurance business of Indian insurers.

The Life Insurance Corporation Bill which was passed on May 23, 1956 came into existence in Bombay on September 1, 1956. The Corporation took over the assets and liablities relating to life insurance work of 245 insurance companies and other insurers, including State Insurance Departments. This Corporation has the exclusive right to carry on life insurance business, including capital redemption business, annuity certain business and reinsurance business, in India and outside. No insurance company is authorised to

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carry on life insurance business in India after the establishment of the Corporation. The Act does not apply to the Post Office Life Insurance Fund and to existing compulsory life insurance schemes for Government employees. The Life Insurance Corporation had an initial capital of Rs. 5 crores, which was provided by Government. It is managed by a Board consisting of not more than 15 members, including Chairman, appointed by the Central Government The Corporation has an Executive Committee, an Investment Committee, Managing Directors and Zonal Managers. In addition to the central office to be located at a place to be notified by the Central Government, there are zonal offices at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Kanpur and Madras, as also Divisional and Branch Offices established all over the country. Under the Divisional Offices, there would be a network of branches—some 180 in number.

Foreign companies are permitted to take their sterling policies out of the country. The nationalised industry is to be run on strictly commercial lines and not subject to the tiresome impedimnts of official audit or day-to-day Parliamentary control. General insurance is left in private hands for the time being.

FUNCTION AND ORGANISATION—Under the Ministry of Finance, there is the Department of Economic Affairs and one of the Divisions of this Department is *Insurance Division.* This Insurance Division deals with the administration of Insurance Act, 1938 and the Life Insurance Corporation Act of 1956.

NEW PLANS OF INSURANCE—New schemes of insurance have already been introduced by the Corporation—(1) *Janata Policy Scheme* is working as a pilot project in the industrial and rural areas of Greater Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Delhi, Rohtak, Kanpur, Calcutta, Siliguri, Madras, Madurai, Coimbatore and Hyderabad (2) *Group Insurance and Superannuation Schemes*—provide low cost life insurance to homogeneous groups of white collar workers and factory employees under one Master Policy (3) *Salary Saving Scheme*—This is a scheme for the employees to enable them to pay premiums by automatic deduction from their salaries.

PROGRESS OF INSURANCE—At the end of 1959, the LIC had Rs. 1,964 crores worth of business in force—an increase of Rs. 744 crores since the end of 1955. The number of policies in force at the end of 1959 was about 7 million. In 1959 alone, the LIC secured new business amounting to Rs. 429 crores (an increase of 25 per cent over 1958) and issued 11.5 lakh new policies—an increase of more than 2 lakhs over 1958.

The number of sub-offices of LIC has increased from 216 to 345.

The business in force represents 15 per cent of the National Income.

ASSOCIATE BODIES—*Insurance Association of India*—All Insurance Companies of India working under the Insurance Act constituted themselves into Insurance Association of India, 1950. The Association has two councils, namely, Life Insurance Council and the General Insurance Council with membership confined to insurers carrying on life and general insurance business respectively. With the nationalisation of life insurance business in India, the Life

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Insurance Council has become *functus officio*. The General Insurance Council has evolved a code of conduct for observance by general insurers with the object of eliminating various alleged malpractices relating to payment of excessive commission. A wing of the association is entrusted with the task of regulation and control of tariff structure in the business.

Reinsurance Corporation of India—In consultation with the Government of India, insurers carrying on general insurance business in India have set up a Reinsurance Corporation of India to check drain on account of reinsurances from India. All member insurancers will compulsorily cede to the Corporation an agreed amount of their annual premimum income. Capital of the Corporation has been subscribed both by the Indian and European insurers.

CLASSES OF INSURANCE—In addition to the Insurance Corporation of India, there are other classes of insurance. In the restricted sphere, insurance business is carried on by the Posts and Telegraphs Department in some States, such as Andhra Pradesh, Kerala Mysore, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh which are transacting life insurance business for their employees only. Marine and miscellaneous classes of business are transacted by Insurance Companies.

General Insurance—This is outside the scope of Life Insurance Corporation. In 1958 there were 117 General Insurance Companies in India registered under the Insurance Act, 1958 for transacting one or more classes of general insurance business. Of these 90 were Indian and 87 were non-Indian. The net premium income in India in all classes of general insurance business of Indian insurers increased to Rs. 12.96 crores in 1958 from Rs. 10.96 crores in 1957. In 1958, Rs. 4.36 crores was earned from fire insurance, Rs. 2.59 crores from marine insurance and Rs. 6.01 crores from miscellaneous insurance.

Provident Societies—These Societies formed under the Provident Societies Act serve people of moderate means. The maximum amount that could be insured with a provident society is Rs. 1000. In 1956 there were 71 registered provident societies.

Postal Insurance—was instituted in 1883 to serve the needs of postal people only. Subsequently the facility was extended to most civilian employees. In Jan. 1948, members of the Defence Services were also admitted to the Fund.

INVESTMENT POLICY OF THE CORPORATION—The investment policy of the Corporation as announced on the 25th August, 1958 by the Government of India is as follows—

(1) the Government and approved securities which generally mean guilt-edged securities.

(2) investments approved under the Section 27 (A) of the Insurance Act, and

(3) other investments.

The limitations are that at least 50 per cent of the total funds should be held in Government and approved securities and not more than 15 per cent should be held in the form of other investments. The balance of 35 per cent would be held in what is known as approved investments.

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TOTAL LIFE INSURANCE BUSINESS

	No. of Policies in India and out of India (lakhs)	*Sum assured and Bonuses* (crores)
1954 ..	.. 47.82	1,177
1955 ..	.. 47.92	1,220
1957 ..	.. 56.83	1,473
1958 ..	.. 62.34	1,682

EMPLOYERS' STATE INSURANCE CORPORATION

The present Act was passed in 1948 and amended in 1951. The scheme was launched in February 1952. It applies to all perennial factories using power and employing 20 or more persons and cover labourers and clerical staff with monthly earnings upto Rs. 400. At present 13 lakh 56 thousand 500 persons are covered by the scheme in areas where it has been implemented.

A Central Fund has been set up under the scheme. Workers receiving less than 30 rupees a month as wages make no contribution to it but get all the benefits. Those receiving between 30 and 45 rupees a month contribute 2 as. a week and the scale rises until a rupee and four annas is charged a week from workers getting 240 rupees a month or more. But no one receiving more than 400 rupees a month can join the scheme.

Workers covered by the scheme get free medical advice and treatment at special dispensaries set up for the purpose or, if necessary, in their homes. They are admitted to hospitals free of cost and in remote areas medical aid reaches them in mobile dispensaries. If they fall ill, they receive a little more than half the daily wages as sickness benefit and can go on receiving it for 8 weeks in any period of 365 days. If they are injured in the course of their duties, they get a cash benefit in instalments and if the injury disables them permanently, they get benefits for the rest of their lives. If the injury proves fatal, long-term pensions are given to their dependents. Women can get 12 as. a day or the full sickness benefit for 12 weeks at a time as help during maternity.

The scheme is administered by a Corporation. The Government of India pays two-thirds of the administrative costs and the State Governments meet a share of the medical expenses. Employers all over the country meet part of the expenditure, whereas workers make their contribution only in areas where the scheme is already in force.

OTHER INSURANCE FUNDS—Employees Provident Funds Act 1952 applies to all units employing 50 or more workers and all workers with monthly earnings of Rs. 500 or less are required to make minimum contribution of 6¼ p.c. of their income. Coal Mines Provident Fund requires workers to contribution 6¼ per cent of their basic wages and dearness allowance.

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LAND REFORMS IN INDIA

OBJECTIVE OF LAND REFORMS—Ownership rights of the landlords under the Zamindari system were morally and legally dubious. Naturally, therefore, land reform was the principal aim of the Congress and also of our new Constitution. The Plannning Commission recommended that land policy should be such as would reduce disparities in wealth and income, eliminate exploitation, provide security for tenants and workers and promise equality of status and opportunity to different sections of the rural population. The principal objectives of tenancy reform as recommended by the Planning Commission are(1) reduction of rent (2) security of tenure (3) ownership for tenants.

Land being a State subject under the Constitution, the responsibility for enacting and enforcing land reform rests with the State Governments. The Central Committee of Land Reforms of the Government of India reviews from time to time progress of land reforms in the country and advises State Government on further measures that may be necessary.

Effects of the abolition of Zamindari System—

(1) The intermediary rights are abolished and compensation paid to the Zamindar. The amount of compensation in most cases is a multiple of net income from intermediary right. The multiple decreases with increase in net income and the result is that the big Zamindar is compensated at lower rate.

(2) Compensation is paid partly in cash and partly in bonds. Smaller zamindars usually get cash payments.

(3) The zaminder is allowed to retain land for personal cultivation, but in most cases a ceiling on land holding is introduced.

(4) After the abolition of Zamindari System, the tenant is responsible for paying rent directly to the Government. On paying a specified amount (usually a multiple of annual rent, he acquires ownership right over his holding.

The main aspects of the *land reform programme* adopted by the different States are—

(1) Abolition of intermediaries and tenancy reforms confering security of tenure upon tenants, fixing fair rents at 1/4th or 1/5th of the produce and leading eventually to the acquisition of ownership of tenants.

(2) Ceiling on land holdings.

(3) Consolidation and prevention of fragmentation of holding and

(4) Development of cooperative farming and cooperative village management.

The *abolition of intermediaries* has been carried out throughout the country with the exception of a few minor tenures and small areas in some of the States.

Due to the abolition of intermediaries, uncultivated lands have been acquired and are being administered by the State or through local agents. Compensation has been paid or are being paid due to

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the abolition of intermediaries. With the exception of Jammu and Kashmir, all States abolishing intermediaries have made arrangements for the payment of compensation or are paying them. The amount of compensation to be paid to the intermediaries by all States is Rs. 625.25 crores, of which 98.87 crores has been paid so far. In the two States, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, the compensation to be paid is the highest—Rs. 240.00 crores and 179.00 crores respectively.

The *ceiling on holdings* has two aspects, namely (i) ceiling on future acquisition and (ii) ceiling on existing holding. Ceilings on future acquisition of land have been fixed in the States of Assam, Jammu & Kashmir, Punjab, Rajasthan, U.P. West Bengal, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and former states of Bombay, Saurastra, Hyderabad and Madhya Pradesh. Legislative provision has been made for the imposition of ceiling on existing holding in Assam, Jammu & Kashmir, West Bengal, Himachal Pradesh and the former States of Hyderabad and Pepsu. Laws had been enacted in 1958-59 for imposition of ceiling on future acquisition in respect of the former Punjab area, Vidarva and Kutch areas of Bombay and Ajmer area of Rajastan.

Legislation for *consolidation of holdings and prevention of fragmentation of land* has been passed in a number of States, namely, Bombay, Orissa, West Bengal, U. P., Madhya Pradesh, Hyderabad (Andhra), Punjab, Rajasthan, Himachal Pradesh Jammu & Kashmir and Delhi. In Assam, legislative provision exists in the Rural Panchayat Act, 1948 for the prevention of fragmentation of holdings. For assisting the States to expand their programmes for consolidation of holding, the Central Government decided to meet upto 50 per cent of the net expenses incurred by a State on its programme for consolidation of holdings or 25 per cent of the gross expenditure incurred on the scheme, whichever is less.

Prevention of Fragmentation—The fragmentation of holdings in India due to ancient laws of inheritance, has resulted in the subdivision and fragmentation of holdings to the detriment of agricultural production. Legislation to prevent fragmentation had been undertaken in Bombay, Delhi, Punjab, and Pepsu before the commencement of the First Plan. During the Plan period, Bihar, Hyderabad, Orissa, Rajasthan and Saurashtra enacted legislations regulating transfers and partition to prevent breakup of a holding or diminution in the size of a plot below a certain minimum. In 15 States, legislative measures were adopted to prevent excessive fragmentation or sub-division. In M. P., a minimum limit of 15 acres has been fixed in Bhopal and Madhya Bharat areas. The minimum in the former Hyderabad State area of Andhra Pradesh is 4 to 60 acres; 6½ acres in Uttar Pradesh and 8 standard acres in Delhi.

While the progress in land reforms legislation has been generally good, implementation of the lands has lagged behind in some respects. In several States, there has been delay in the enactment of laws and in some they could not be effectively enforced due to lack of adequate administrative machinery. The Central Committee reviews the progress of land reforms from time to time and brings to the notice of the State Governments further measures which are necessary.

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LAND REFORM MEASURES IN THE FIRST AND SECOND PLANS—*Land Reform Policy of the 1st Five Year Plan* was (1) abolition of intermediaries (2) enactment of radical tenancy reforms and resumption of personal cultivation based on peasant-proprietorship (3) regulation of rents and consolidation of holdings.

Land Reform Policy of the 2nd Five-Year Plan—(1) Creation of the co-operative village management. This means that as regards ownership, peasant proprietorship is emphasized, but ultimate objective of management will be to entrust it to the whole village community. In the field of operation these will be either individual or co-operative farming.

ADMINISTRATION OF LAND REFORMS—Land reforms in India are implemented by the revenue agencies of the State Governments. In some States, panchayats have been assigned an important role in the implementation of land reforms. In Uttar Pradesh it has been vested in *gaon samaj*. Collection of land revenue has also been entrusted to a few village bodies on a commission basis. Thus in many States, the people in the rural areas have been increasingly associated with the administration of land reforms.

LAND REFORM POLICY OF THE CONGRESS—The following resolution on land reforms was passed by the Indian National Congress in 1959 at Nagpur—

"The Congress is of opinion that: (1) the organisation of the village should be based on the village panchayats and village cooperatives, both of which should have adequate powers and resources to discharge the functions allotted to them. A member of village co-operatives may from themselves into a union. All permanent residents of the village, whether owning land or not should be eligible for membership of the village co-operative, which should promote the welfare of its members by including progressive farming methods and improved techniques of cultivation and encouraging cottage industries.

(2) The future agrarian pattern should be that of co-operative joint farming, in which the land will be pooled for joint cultivation, the farmers continuing to retain their property rights and getting a share from the net produce in proportion to their land. Further, those who actually work on the land, whether they own the land or not, will get a share in proportion to the work put in by them on joint farm.

(3) As a first step, prior to the institution of joint farming, service co-operatives should be organised throughout the country. This stage should be completed within a period of three years.

(4) Ceilings should be fixed on existing and future holdings and legislation to this effect, as well as for the abolition of intermediaries, should be completed in all States by the end of 1959 in order to remove uncertainty regarding land reforms and to give stability to the farmer. All surplus land should vest in Panchayats and should be managed through village co-operatives.

(5) With a view to assuring a fair return to the tiller, a minimum or floor price should be fixed in advance of the saving season

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with respect to each crop and arrangement should be made to purchase directly, whenever necessary, the crop produced.

(6) The introduction of State trading in wholesale trade in good grain, is welcome and should be fully given effect to.

(7) Every effects should be made to bring the uncultivated and waste land into cultivation. The Central Government should appoint a committer to revise suitable measures for utilisation of this land.

PROGRESS OF LAND REFORMS—Since independence, in most States legislation has been enacted to abolish intermediaries (zamindaries, jaigirs and inams) and tenants have been brought into direct contact with the Government. By the end of 1959, Rs. 129 crores had been paid to intermediaries as compensation. The total amount of compensation payable is estimated at Rs. 435 crores. Many States have passed legislation to regulate land rents. A tenant now pays a rent not more than one-fourth of the gross produce and in some States as little as a sixth. The States have also enacted legislations providing for security of tenure. Ceilings on landholdings have been or are being fixed in all States. No ceiling, however, has been put on agricultural income and the owner is free to revise his earnings from the holding.

ABOLITION OF INTERMEDIARIES—The progress made for the abolition of intermediaries are as follows—

(1) *Andhra Pradesh*—Zamindari and pre-1936 *inam* estates have been abolished in the former State of Andhra. Acquisition of post-*inam* estates is in progress (2) *Assam*—Acquisition of rights of the intermediaries has been completed in Goalpara district (3) *Bihar*—Intermediaries have been abolished except in a few estates (4) *Bombay*—Abolition of non-ryotwari tenures has been completed with the exception of certain *inams*. During 1959 law was passed for abolition of *Bandijama,ugadia* and *inam* tenures in the former State of Bombay and *ijara* and *aghat* tenures in Saurashtra (5) *Jammu & Kashmir*—Legislation for abolition of intermediary interests in land held by occupancy tenants is under consideration (6) *Kerala*—Bill for abolition of tenure in Travancore area is awaiting enactment (7) *Madhya Pradesh*—Intermediary tenures have generally been abolished (8) *Madras*—Intermediaries have been abolished with the exception of post 1836-*inams* and minor inams (9) *Mysore*—In the area of former Mysore State, legislation for abolition of personal and miscellaneous *inams* have been under implementation (10) *Orissa*—Superior rights in permanently settled and temporary settled *zamindari* estates have been abolished (12) *Punjab*—Superior owners and landlords of lands held under occupancy tenants have been abolished. Inferior owners have been made owners of their lands (13) *Rajasthan*—All settled *jigirs* with rental income above Rs. 5,000 have been resumed. In 1959 a bill for abolition of *zamindari* and *biswedari* tenures was enacted (14) *Uttar Pradesh*—Intermediaries except in Kumaon have been abolished (15) *West Bengal*—All intermediary interests were acquired by April 1955 (16) *Delhi*—All intermediary interests have been acquired under Delhi Land

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Reforms Act 1954 (17)—*Himachal Pradesh*—Legislation has been prepared for abolition of intermediaries.

COMPENSATION PAYABLE AND PAID FOR ABOLITION OF INTERMEDIARIES

(*In Crores of Rupees*)

	Compensation payable	*Amount paid*		*Compensation payable*	*Amount paid*
Andhra Pradesh	16.24	11.23	Mysore ..	3.91	1.07
Assam ..	5.18	0.46	Orissa ..	10.50	0.47
Bihar ..	240.00	4.61	Rajasthan ..	40.50	6.74
Bombay ..	28.74	7.96	Uttar Pradesh	179.00	78.88
Kerala ..	0.20	—	W. Bengal ..	70.00	3.01
M. Pradesh ..	22.10	9.78			
Madras ..	6.37	4.17		622.74	128.38

CEILINGS ON EXISTING HOLDINGS

Andhra Pradesh—Telangana area 18 to 270 acres.
Assam—Plain districts 50 acres.
Bombay—Marathwada area 18 to 270 acres ; Vidarbha 42 to 240 acres ; Kutch 72 to 270 acres.
Jammu & Kashmir—22½ acres.
Mysore—Hyderabad area (former) 18 to 270 acres.
Punjab—PEPSU area 30 standard acres in case of displaced persons 40 standard acres.
Rajasthan—Ajmeer area 50 acres in case of land held by intermediaries.
West Bengal—25 arces.
Himachal Pradesh—30 acres in Chamba district and area assessed at Rs. 125 in other areas.

CEILINGS ON FUTURE HOLDINGS

Andhra Pradesh—Telangana 12 to 180 acres ;
Assam—50 acres.
Bombay—Former Bombay area 12 to 48 acres ; Marathwada area 12 to 180 acres ; Saurastra area 60 to 120 acres ; Vidarbha 21 to 120 acres ; Katch 36 to 135 acres.
Jammu & Kashmir—22½ acres.
Madhya Pradesh—to be prescribed.
Mysore—Bombay area (former) 12 to 48 acres ; Hyderabad area (former) 12 to 180 acres.
Punjab—30 Standard acres.
Rajasthan—30 to 90 acres.
Uttar Pradesh—12½ acres.
West Bengal—25 acres.
Delhi—30 Standard acres.

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PUBLIC SERVICES IN INDIA

PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION—The Constitution of India provides for the setting up of Public Service Commission for the whole of India and also for each State. Two or more States may have a common Public Service Commission. Union Public Service Commission is an independent statutory body under Article 315 (1) of the Constitution of India. The Union Public Service Commission may also work for a State with the approval of the President of India. The President appoints the Chairman and the members of the Union Public Service Commission or of a Joint Commission. In the case of a State Commission, the Governor appoints the President and the members. The Chairman or any of the members of a Public Service Commission can be removed from office only by an order of the President and after an enquiry by the Supreme Court of India. Article 319 of the Constitution debars the Chairman from further employment either under the Government of India or the Government of a State. There are also other Service Commissions apart from Central or State Public Service Commissions, such as Municipal Public Service Commissions in three Municipal Corporations of India and Railway Service Commissions for Railways of India. The Union Public Service Commission is related to the Government of India through the Ministry of Home Affairs but in its day-to-day work, it deals directly with the different Ministries and Departments of the Government of India.

As nearly as may be, one half of the members of the Commissions are persons who on the dates of their respective appointments have held office at least ten years either under the Government of India or under the Government of a State. A member of the Commission holds office for a term of six years from the date on which he enters upon his office or until he attains the age of sixty-five years, whichever is earlier. He may, by writing under his hand addressed to the President, resign his office. The Chairman or a member of the Commission can be removed from the office only by the order of the President under the following circumstances—(1) on the ground of misbehaviour (2) if he is adjudged insolvent (3) if he engages during his term of office in any other paid employment (4) unfit to continue in office by reason of infirmity of mind and body.

PROCEDURE OF SERVICE—Public Service Commissions conduct examinations for the recruitment of Union and State Services. They are empowered to interview candidates for fresh appointments and promotion. The Commissions also advise their respective Governments on disciplinary cases and service matters generally. It is obligatory on the part of the Union Government and State Governments to consult their respective Commissions on all matters relating to methods of recruitment to Civil service and posts, on the principles to be followed in

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making appointments, promotions and transfers from one service to another, on all disciplinary matters affecting a Government servant, on any claim by or in respect of person who is serving or has served the Government, and on any claim for the award of a pension in respect of injuries received by a Government servant while on duty.

The Union Public Service Commission submits its annual report of its work to the President who is required to place it before the Parliament.

CONDITIONS OF SERVICE—Regarding All-India Services, such as I. A. S. and I. P. S., Parliament has the authority to regulate, by law, the recruitment and the conditions of services for these services. Accordingly, the All-India Services Act was passed by Parliament in 1951. Under the Article 311 of the Indian Constitution, no member of a civil or All-India Service can be dismissed or removed by an authority subordinate to that by which he was appointed. Before any one is dismissed or removed, reasonable opportunity must be given to the party to defend himself. This privilege is, however, denied to those who are convicted of a criminal offence or when the dismissing authority is satisfied that it is not possible to give the offender an opportunity to defend himself or where the President or the Governor is satisfied that for the security of the State, it is not proper to allow opportunities for defence.

TRAINING OF SERVICES—National Academy of Administration has been set-up at Mussoorie on September 1959 by abolishing training schools at Delhi and Simla. The probationers of I.A.S. and I.P.S. are now trained at Mussoorie and at Central Police Training College, Abu. Probationers of Indian Foreign Service are given training at the National Academy of Administration for six months. The Academy also conducts courses for officers of I.A.S. with 6 to 10 years service and a combined training course in fundamental subjects for probationers of the All India and Central Services.

METHODS OF EXAMINATIONS—All the examinations are conducted at suitable centres. The candidates competing for the All India Services and the Central Services have also to appear at a personality test after they have qualified in the written test. The marks secured in the personality test would be added to the marks obtained. Candidates would be ranked on the basis of the total marks.

ALL INDIA SERVICES—Recruitment two All-India Services (*i.e.*, I.A.S. and IP.S.) and other Central Services is made by the Union Public Service Commission on the basis of competitive examination supplemented by a personality tests. The conditions of service are regulated by Acts of Parliament. The *All India Services Act* was passed by the Parliament in October 1951 with detailed rules and regulations.

Following are the examinations carried out by the U.P.S.C.—

Methods of Recruitment—

1. Examinations.—

(2) Indian Police Service.

(3) Indian Foreign Service.

(4) Indian Administrative Service.

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(5) Indian Customs & Excise Service.
(6) Indian Defence Accounts Service.
(7) Indian Railway Accounts Service.
(8) Indian Income-Tax Service, Class I.
(9) Indian Postal Service, Class I.
(10) Military Lands and Cantonments Service, Classes I & II.
(11) Transportation (Traffic) and Commercial Departments of the Superior Revenue Establishment of Indian Railways.
(12) Central Secretariat Service, Grade III.
(13) Railway Board Secretariat Service (Grade III).
(14) Indian Railway Service of Engineers.
(15) Telegraph Engineering Service (Class I).
(16) Military Engineering Service (Class I).
(17) Telegraphs Traffic Service (Class II).
(18) Survey of India (Class I & II).
(19) Central Electrical Engineering Service (Class I & II).
(20) Central Secretariat Service (Grade III).
(21) Central Engineering Service (Class I & II).

2. **Direct Recruitment by Interview**—There is a large number of posts in the Government of India for which more or less technical, scientific or specialized persons have to be obtained for responsible duties. The recruitment for such posts cannot be filled up by promoting persons already in any organised service. So recruitment is made by a system of competitive interview conducted by the Commission.

3. **Promotion**—Many senior posts are filled by promotion of officers who have gained experience in junior posts in those services ; recommendations are made by a departmental promotion committee consisting of a Member of the Commission as Chairman and senior officers of the Ministry or Department concerned and are then placed before the Commission for final ratification

4. **Temporary Appointments and Re-employment**—The Commission is consulted for temporary appointments for periods exceeding one year but not exceeding three years and re-employment of Government servants who have attained the age of superannuation.

5. **Disciplinary Actions**—The Commission is consulted before orders are passed by the President imposing any penalty on a Government servant. The Commission is also consulted before the President passes an order on an appeal, petition or memorial against any disciplinary order passed by any authority subordinate to the President.

6. **Quasi-Permanancy Cases**—Under Central Civil Services (Temporary Service) Rules 1949, temporary employees are declared quasi-permanent on the completion of three years of approved service, provided they are within the age limits and have necessary qualifications. This quasi-permanency has to be granted by the Government in consultation with the Commission.

7. **Reimbursement of Legal Expenses**—The claims for reimbursement of the legal expenses incurred by Government servants in defending themselves are referred to the Commission under Article 320 (3) (d) of the Indian Constitution.

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8. **Extraordinary Injury Pensions**—The Commission is required to be consulted on any claim in respect of injuries sustained by Government servants in a civil capacity and any question as to the amount of any such award.

Central Information Service

The Government of India have constituted a Central Information Service which came into effect from March 1, 1960. The service includes persons holding editional or journalistic posts in All India Radio, Press Information Bureau, Publications Division, Registrar of Newspapers in India and Films Division, Research and Reference Division, Directorates of Advertising and visual Publisity and Directorate of Field Publicity. The service is broken into six grades with a permanent strength of 350 ports :

Central Secretariat Service

Central Secretariat Service was created in 1950 for central and attached office.

This service includes all posts in the Central Secretariat from an assistant upto an Under Secretary, except those which are specifically excluded with the consent of the Ministry of Home Affairs. In addition, it includes posts in the attached offices which the Ministries administratively concerned with such posts as well as the Ministries of Finance and Home Affairs agree to include. The service is now organised into four grades—Recruitment of Grade I (Under Secretary) is made entirely by selection of officers from Grade II (Superintendent) on the advice of the Central Establishment Board. Recruitment to Grade II is made by promotion from among the permanent members of Grade III (Assistant Superintendent). Half the number of vacancies in Grade III are filled by direct recruitment on the results of the combined competitive examinations held for I.A.S. and other Central Services and the remaining by promotion from Grade IV (Assistant). A new Selection Grade has also been created and persons appointed by this Grade are normally expected to hold posts of Deputy Secretary in the Central Secretariat and other departments of the Government.

Central Administrative Pool—An Administrative Pool for staffing senior posts at the Centre was constituted by the Government of India in 1957. The purpose is to build up a reserve of officers with special training and experience.

Educational Qualifications for Government Services

On December 15, 1959, the Government of India announced that the lower level of Government services will not be required to have a university degree. Similarly, the non-clerical Central Class III Services have been exempted from the degree qualification.

Higher level of Government Services, All India and Central Class I, will continue to have a university degree for entry. The age limit will also remain the same, 21 to 24 years and for Indian Police Service 20 to 24 years.

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For recruitment to Central Class III (non-clerical), the minimum qualification of a university degree will not be essential. Instead, it is to be Intermediate, Senior Cambridge, Higher Secondary Certificate or equivalent. However, the age limit has been fixed at 19 to 23 years so as to enable the graduates to compete. This concession does not apply to SAS apprentices and divisional accountants in the Indian Audit and Accounts department.

Clerks—Persons recruited to the clerical services (Upper Division) will be required to have only Intermediate, senior Cambridge, Higher Secondary Certificate or equivalent qualification and not a university degree. The age limit will be 18 to 21 years.

University degree will continue to be essential for recruitment to Central Class II gazetted and non-gazetted, including assistants in offices not participating in Central Secretariat Service Scheme. For the gazetted category, the age limit will remain as before, 21 to 24 years and for the non-gazetted, it will be from 20 to 24 years.

As before, the minimum qualification for entry into clerical services (Lower Division) will remain Matriculation or equivalent, until replaced by Higher Secondary. The age limit is to be 18 to 21 years.

These orders do not apply to recruitment to technical, professional and specialist services.

Pay and Scale of some Services

I.A.S. and Indian Foreign Service.

Junior Scale—350—400—450—500—540—50—600—E.B—30—870—40—950(19 years)

Senior Scale—800 (6th year or under)—50—1,000—60—1300—50—1,800 (25 years)

Indian Police Service.

Junior Scale—350—350—380—380—30—590—E. B.—30—770—40—850 (19 years).

Senior Scale— 600 (6th year or under) 40—100—1000—1050—1100,—1100—1150 (22nd year)

Selection grade—1,250.

ATOMIC ENERGY IN INDIA

BIRTH OF ATOMIC ENERGY IN INDIA—In the field of Atomic research, India is now maintaining the lead among the countries in Asia. Under the Industrial Policy Resolution of 1948, atomic energy in India was made the exclusive subject of the Government. India created an Atomic Energy Commission as early as in 1948 to lay the foundation of the country's atomic development. Its immediate aims were the promotion of nuclear research, the survey, prospecting and processing of raw materials and setting up of an experimental reactor. The primary

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object of atomic energy programme in countries such as the U.S.A. Russia and UK is to produce electrical power, isotopes and material for nuclear weapons. In contrast to this, the Indian programme concentrates on power production, with a certain amount of isotope development, but with no nuclear missle section.

DEPARTMENT OF ATOMIC ENERGY—The Atomic Energy Commission was set up in 1948 with the object of developing and harnessing atomic energy for peaceful purposes in India. This Commission formed a part of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Scientific Research. The Government of India set up a separate Department, known as *Department of Atomic Energy*, in August 1954 under the charge of Prime Minister. All the business of the Government of India relating to atomic energy under the Atomic Energy Act, 29 of 1948, is now done by this Department. The Department is located at Bombay. The Atomic Energy Commission now functions under the Department of Atomic Energy. The Commission is responsible for formulating and implementing policies in all matters concerning atomic energy. The scientific and technical work of the Commission is carried out by the Atomic Minerals Division and the Atomic Energy Establishment. The industrial aspects of its work are conducted by Indian Rare Earths (Private) Ltd., and Travancore Minerals (Private) Ltd.

This Department consists of—(*a*) Main Secretariat of the Department of Atomic Energy, Bombay (*b*) Branch Secretariat, New Delhi (*c*) Atomic Energy Establishment consisting of Physics and Engineering Groups, Chemistry Group, Biology Division, Medical and Health Division, Information Division and Raw Materials Division.

PROGRESS OF ATOMIC ENERGY—Since the establishment of the Department of Atomic Energy in August, 1954, research and development in the peaceful uses of atomic energy has made important and rapid stride.

In India, power and isotope production and applications, under the direction of the Atomic Energy Commission are the two branches of nuclear science which are reveiving attention. The first large-scale nuclear reactor *Apsara* of the swimming-pool type was put into operation in August 1956 and it contributes to the power supply of India. Outside Russia, it was the first reactor to go into operation in Asia. As by-products from this reactor, several types of isotopes have been isolated and applied to Indian medical and biological works, while much research and experimental work has been carried out with the unit. The primary object of the *Apsara* reactor is not to provide electrical power on a large scale but to give experience to India's technicians in manupulating nuclear plant. Nuclear activities in general are based upon Trombay Establishment. This is located at Trombay, some 15 miles from the centre of Bombay. The site of the Establishment covers an area of over 2,000 acres. Besides accommodating a number of reactors, it is the research and department centre for the application of atomic energy throughout India.

INDIA'S REACTORS—*Apsara*, India's first atomic reactor, which went into operation on August 4, 1956, is proving a very

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useful facility for research in many fields. It is the first reactor to go into operation in Asia, outside the USSR. It was designed, engineered and built entirely by Indian scientists and engineers and by Indian industry, except for the fuel elements.

This small-sized reactor, which cost Rs. 35 lakhs, is producing radio-isotopes which are already being extensively used by Indian agriculture, medicine and industry, and research workers at the universities. *Apsara* is the nation's principal facility for training personnel in reactor technology and for fundamental research in physics, engineerng and biology. India's second reactor is known as *Zerlina* Reactor. The heavy water for this reactor is being obtained from U.S. Atomic Energy Commission on lease. The lease charges would be calculated at the rate of 4 p.c. per annum of the sale price.

India's third research reactor is the Rs. 7½ crore Canada-India reactor, which went into operation in July, 1960. It is going to be one of the largest isotope producers in the world. It is a joint Indo-Canadian project. The reactor embodies a steel shell of 150 ft. high by 120 ft. in diameter, built up by welding accurately shaped steel sheets together. Six buildings adjoining the reactor are designed to include laboratories for the testing and treatment of nuclear ores and minerals which are being recovered on a constantly increasing scale in various parts of India. A plant has been erected for the concentration of heavy water is produced at Nangal.

COMMISSION'S INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITIES—*Indian Rare Earths (Private) Ltd.*, was established in August 1950 at Alwaye (Kerala), which is owned by the Commission and the Government of Kerala. This plant processes monazite, which produces rare earth chlorides and carbonates as main products and trisodium phosphate as a by-product. *Travancore Minerals (Private) Ltd.* was set up in 1956 by the Governments of Madras and Kerala for the production of ilmenite and monazite. There is a thorium plant at Trombay, where thorium nitrate is extracted from the residue left after the rare earths have been extracted at the Indian Rare Earths (Private) Ltd., plant. The Commission has also a pilot plant in operation at Ghatsila (Bihar) for the extraction of uranium from the copper tailings. Heavy water will be produced as a by-product at the fertilizer plant which is being built at Nangal.

ATOMIC ENERGY MINERALS IN INDIA—In the Indian atomic programme the minerals which are indigenous to the country are chosen as a source of nuclear energy. Of the various nuclear fuels, natural uranium metal contains 0.72% of a fissile isotope U-235, the remander being U-238 and from the latter is is possible to produce plutonium. From thorium, whic h is plentiful in India, the fissile isotope U-233 can be manufactured. When uranium is used, as it is in the Canada-India reactor, the product plutonium is yielded, as this may be used in the manufacture of atomic weapons, or it can take the place of natural uranium in a reactor of the same type which produced plutonium. Alternatively, the plutonium can be employed with uranium-238 in another type of thermal reactor to yield more plutonium.

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Since thorium is present in abundance in India, this is the metal that is being increasingly converted to uranium-233 and India built one of the largest thorium plants at Trombay in 1955. Thorium occurs in the monazite sands on the Kerala coast and in Bihar; about 9 p.c. of the thorium being present in the monazite. The raw mineral also contains a small proportion of uranium, but sufficiently large to make monazite a source of uranium for Indian atomic energy programme. In 1952, the Indian Atomic Energy Commission erected a plant at Alwaye, near Cochin, Travancore, which is operated by the Indian Rare Earths (Private) Ltd.The concentrated mineral mixture which is produced at Alwaye is sent to Trombay, where the uranium and thorium are extracted in the new metal treatment plants there. The estimated reserves of uranium in India are placed at at over 30,000 tons and about 500,000 tons of thorium metal. There is sufficient nuclear fuel in India, therefore, to meet requirements for a long time, without having to import the materials.

The heavy water, another chemical required in nuclear reactors to serve as moderator, would be also manufactured in quantity. A plant to produce 14 tons of heavy water each year will shortly come into operation at Nangal, situated in the Punjab. It will be produced as a by-product of fertilizer manufacture. The Trombay Establishment is colaborating with Nangal Fertilizers and Chemicals Ltd.

MINERAL PROSPECTING—Indian Atomic Minerals Division has been established with the object of prospecting for nuclear minerals, preparing and testing these. Temporary laboratories have been set up in many parts of the country for radio-metric assay of the samples. The men operate from four sub-headquarters at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Bangalore. Thorium and uranium are present in large amounts. Zircon allanite from which Zirconium can be extracted has been discovered in the Andhra and Madras, areas. Hafinium is associated zirconium in some of the deposits. The mineral fergusonite, source of yttrium, has been located in Madurai area, Madras. In the Udaipur area of Rajasthan extensive deposits of uraniferous ore has been found. India is one of the world's largest producers of the mineral beryl, from which beryllium can be extracted. Beryllium oxide, obtainable from the metal, is an important material for use as a reactor moderator.

ATOMIC POWER STATION—The Government of India have decided to establish the first atomic power station in India to be located at Tarapore, on the West coast of India between Ahmedabad and Bombay. The nearest railway station to Tarapore is Boisar at a distance of seven miles which lies on the main Bombay-Baroda route on the Western Railway. The atomic power station which will have a capacity of 300,000 kw. will be the largest in Asia. The power station at Tarapore will have two atomic reactors with 1,50,000 kw. each.

INDIA'S POSITION IN THE WORLD ATOMIC ENERGY—India has been renominated to the Board of Governors of U.N. International Atomic Energy Agency as being the most advanced

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country in atomic energy development in South Asia. Dr. Homi J. Bhabba, Chairman, Atomic Energy Commission is the Governor for India. The I.A.E.A. which came into being on July 29, 1957, is a specialised agency of the U.N. "to acclerate and enlarge the contribution of atomic energy to peace, health and prosperty throughout the world."

The National Planning Association of U. S. A., an American non-profit and non-political organisation devoted to planning by Americans in business, reported in 1960 that a dozen nations, including India, China and both East and West Germany, were capable of embarking on nuclear weapons programmes.

MINERAL OILS IN INDIA

IMPORTANCE OF MINERAL OIL AND GAS IN INDIA—The extent to which India has to depend on the mineral oil and gas may be easily ascertained from the following facts :—India needs aviation fuel for her civil and military planes, petrol for her motor cars, kerosine for lighting and cooking, diesel oil for the buses and tractors, furnace oil for factories, bitumen for roads, and lubricants for machines. Oil is not only essential for the development of our industry, it can also help to provide a solution of our biggest problem in food. If our villagers could be persuaded to do their cooking on kerosine stoves, it would mean the saving of about 250 million tons of animal dung annually which goes up in smoke. The oil is being mainly produced at Digboi in Assam around a quarter million tons of crude oil. The new finds in Assam are in Nahorkatiya area, where oil has been found at a depths of 10,000 ft. and also at Moran in 1956 at a depth of 13,739 ft.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND FUNCTIONAL SET-UP—With the formation of the new Central Cabinet in 1957, a new Ministry has been formed known as *Ministry of Steel, Mines and Fuel.* The Ministry of Steel, Mines and Fuel now consists of the following Departments—(1) Department of Iron and Steel (2) Department of Mines and Fuel. This Ministry is headed by a Cabinet Minister who is assisted by a *Minister of State for Mines and Oil.* The Department of Mines & Fuel has taken over the following offices and organisations —(1) Geological Survey of India (2) Indian Bureau of Mines (3) Oil and Natural Gas Commission (4) Office of the Coal Controller (5) Coal Board (6) National Coal Development Corporation and (7) Nevili Lignite Corporation.

The Department of Mines and Fuel is responsible for the following subjects—(i) Mines and minerals (including the Indian Bureau of Mines, special mining projects and the Geological Survey of India) (ii) Fuel including coal, lignite, oil and natural gas (including exploration, drilling, existing and future refineries, distribution, and pricing).

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The Department of Mines and Fuel has the following major Divisions—(1) Coal and Lignite Division (2) Mines Division (3) Oil Division. Of these, Oil Division administers *Oil and Natural Gas Commission*; exploration, production and refining of oil and natural gas; prices and distribution of petroleum products; petroleum economics; refineries; Government and Defence requirements of petroleum products; Indo-Stanvac Project and Petroleum Commission Rules.

THE OIL AND NATURAL GAS COMMISSION—has become a statutory organisation under the Oil and Natural Gas Commission Act, 1959, providing "for the establishment of a commission for the development of petroleum resources and the production and sale of petroleum and petroleum products produced by it and matters connected therewith. Under the new Act, Minister for Mines and Oil has been appointed part-time Chairman.

OIL EXPLORATION IN INDIA—Drilling operations for oil in India are being carried on by Oil and Natural Gas Commission, Standard Vacuum Oil Company for the Indio-Stanvac Petroleum Project, the Assam Oil Company Ltd. and the Oil India (Private) Ltd. The Commission has been carrying on deep test drilling at Jwalamukhi, Hoshiarpur and Cambay and propose to start such operations at Sibsagar (Assam) shortly. The Standard Vacuum Oil Company have been carrying out drilling operations in West Bengal and the Assam Oil Co. and Oil India (Private) Ltd in areas in Assam. The Commission is also carrying on structural drilling in Jwalamukhi area and shallow drilling in Baroda area.

The Oil and Natural Gas Commission found gas in two horizons in deep test well No. I at Jwalamukhi. Oil was struck in Cambay well No. I indicating possibility of commercial exploitation. In one shallow hole at Vadser near Baroda, some gas and oil came out with pressure, suggesting a tiny pocket of gas and oil there.

Out of six wells drilled by Standard Vacuum Oil Company in West Bengal, five wells proved dry. The results of the sixth well at Ranaghat were not yet available. In Nahorkatiya, Hurijan and Moran of Assam, 48 wells have been already drilled. All except eight of them were oil-producing areas.

A partnership company known as '*Oil India Private Limited*' has been incorporated in February 1959. This is a partnership company of the Government of India and the Burma Oil Company. This is a "rupee company" which will take over the exploitation of oil resources in the Nahorkatiya, Hurijan and Moran areas of upper Assam. The Government of India would hold one-third of the total share capital, while the company would hold two-thirds of it. 'Oil India' would produce oil and deliver it to the two refineries which are being set up in the public sector in Assam and Bihar. The authorised capital of the Company is 50 crores. The product by the rupee company will be sold to the two refineries sponsored by the Government of India at Bihar and Assam.

OIL REFINERIES IN INDIA—A survey of possibilities and suitable locations for refineries in India was undertaken by the major oil companies in 1948 at the instance of the Government of India.

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Agreements were signed by the Government of India with the *Standard Vaccum and Burmah Shell group of companies*, whereby they agreed to provide a modern oil refinery, each in Trombay near Bombay. *Caltex* followed suit a little later by offering to construct a refinery in Viskhapatnam on the east coast. The Stanvac Refinery came on stream in the third quarter of 1954, the Burma Shell Refinery early in 1955 and the Caltex Refinery started functioning in July 1957.

The Burmah-Shell Refinery is the largest in India with a designed capacity of a little over two million tons, followed by Stanvac and Caltex with a designed capacity of 1.2 million tons and 0.67 million tons of crude oil respectively. The coastal refineries at Bombay and Visakhapatnam are running on imported crude oil. The Burmah Shell and Stanvac Refineries are getting their supplies of crude oil from Persian Gulf. The Caltex Refinery is processing crude oil from the Middle East and Indonesia.

The oldest refinery in India is, of course, Assam Oil Co's own refinery in Digboi with its capacity of only 350,000 tons per annum.

OIL REFINERIES IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR—Two oil refineries are being started in India in the public sector—(1) An agreement for the establishment of an oil refinery at Barauni (Bihar) between the Government of India and the Government of U.S.S.R. was conducted on the 28th September, 1959. The refinery will be based on the crude oil from the Nahorkatiya region in Assam. (2) Another refinery is being set up at Nunmati (Assam) with the financial and technical assistance obtained from the Government of Rumania.

The Barauni Refinery will be designed to process about 2 million tons of crude oil per annum. The Soviet Government have extended a credit of 100 million roubles or Rs. 12 crores with a long dated repayment schedule. The Refinery in Assam is being set up with the assistance of the Rumanian Government which have offered a credit of Rs. 5.25 crores.

For the distribution of petroleum products in India, an Indian Oil Company, known as '*Oil India*', State organisation, was registered on June 30, 1959. All the shares of the Company are held by the Government of India. With the setting up of two Government-owned oil refineries to process Assam crude oil, the Government decided to enter upon the marketing and distribution of petroleum in the country by starting this '*Oil India.*'

FAMILY PLANNING IN INDIA

OBJECT OF FAMILY PLANNING—India's population growth has accelerated in the last few decades. Since 1921 census, the three successive decades recorded increase of 11.0, 13.5 and 14.1 per cent respectively. The population was expected to increase from 360 million in 1951 to 520 million in 1980, unless the rate of growth was checked by family planning. The aim of family planning is to educate the people on the need for limiting families

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in the larger context of national, economic and social progress. The objects of the family planning programme as laid down by the Planning Commission are—(1) to obtain an accurate picture of factors contributing to the rapid increase of population in India (2) to discover suitable techniques of family planning and devise methods by which knowledge of these techniques can be widely disseminated and (3) to make family planning an integral part of service in Government hospitals and public health agencies (4) research on the production of contraceptives (5) facilities for training of personnel in family planning.

The Family Planning was launched as an official programme in the later part of the First-Year Plan as part of the Government of India's policy for population control. The four important activities under the programme are—service, training, education and research.

CENTRAL BOARD—The head of the entire family planning organisation is the Central Family Planning Board with the Union Health Minister as Chairman and a representative membership and a Standing Committee. Family Planning Boards are in operation in all States except Kerala and Jammu and Kashmir. The training in family planning is being given by the Family Planning and Research Centre at Bombay, Family Planning Demonstration and Experimental Centre at Ramanagram (Mysore) and the All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health at Calcutta.

TRAINING AND RESEARCH—The Union Ministry of Health has constituted a *Demographic Advisory Committee* to advise advise on research and studies in relationship between economic, social and population changes on the reproduction pattern, attitudes and motivation affecting the size of the family. A provision of Rs. 30 lakhs has been made in the Second Plan for demographic training and research. A Demographic Training and Research Centre has been established in Bombay. Three demographic centres have also been set up at Delhi, Calcutta and Trivandrum.

FAMILY PLANNING PROGRAMME—(1) Family Planning activities are conducted solely on a voluntary basis. Every care is taken that social and cultural values are not affected. (2) Family Planning Boards have been formed and Family Planning officers have been appointed in most States. (3) Provision for family planning clinic in teaching institutions for doctors and medical auxiliaries and n corporations, and family family in their courses of study is being initiated.

PROGRESS OF THE PLANNING—In the First Five-Year Plan a sum of Rs. 65 lakhs was allocated. During this period. 21 rural and 126 urban clinics were established. A provision of Rs. 487 lakhs has been made in the Second Plan envisaging 500 clinics in urban areas, each serving a population of 50,000 ; and 2,000 clinics in rural areas, each serving a population of 66,000.

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INDIAN ELECTIONS

ELECTION COMMISSION—Under the Article 324 of the Indian Constitution, Election Commission had been set up by the Government of India for conducting free and fair elections throughout the country on Jan. 25, 1950. The Election Commission is a Statutory body and has an independent status. The main functions of the Election Commission are as follows—

(1) Superintendence, direction and control of the preparation of the electoral rolls and keeping them up-to-date at all times (2) conducting all elections to the Parliament and State Legislatures as well as the election of the President and the Vice-President of India (3) appointing the Election Tribunals to investigate complaints made in election petitions, etc.

The Commission consists of a Chief Election Commissioner, and such other Commissioners as necessary are appointed by the President. The President also appoints Regional Commissioners in consultation with the Election Commission. The conditions of tenure and service of the Commissioners are determined by the President.

1957 ELECTIONS—The results of the Lok Sabha elections were officially published on April 5, 1957. Candidates were returned for 488 of the 500 seats in the Lok Sabha by election.

The Congress won 365 seats, about the same number as in 1951-52 elections and increased its proportion of the total vote from 45 to 47 per cent. It also won absolute majority in 11 of the 13 State Assemblies, although securing a majority of the total vote only in Assam (56 per cent) and Mysore (51 per cent). In Orissa, where no single party obtained a majority, Congress as the largest party formed a minority Government with the support of certain other groups. In Kerala, the Communist Party emerged as the largest single group, and was able to take office with Independents' support.

Out of an electorate of 193,129,024 about 121,400,000 people voted in the Parliamentary and 112,300,000 in the State Assembly elections. 118,821,705 votes were cast in the Parliamentary elections against 105,987,318 in the 1951-52 elections, when the electorate totalled about 173,000,000. The number of candidates for the Lok Sabha shared a considerable decrease, from 1975 in 1951-52 to 1493. Only 12 candidates (all congress) were returned unopposed.

Elections to the Lok Sabha.

The following table shows the seats and votes won by the four all-India parties—the *Congress, Praja Socialist Party, Communist Party* and *Jan Sangh.*

COMPOSITION OF LOK SABHA

	1957		1951-52	
	Seats	*Votes*	*Seats*	*Votes*
Congress ..	365	57,278,612	362	47,528,911
P. S. P. ..	19	11,642,726	21	17,285,126

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Communists	..	29	12,068,452	23	4,712,009
Jan Sangh	..	4	7,216,800	3	3,206,361
Others	..	71	30,615,115	80	33,224,911

(*All voting figures are provisional*).

COMPOSITION OF THE LOK SABHA

	No. of Seats	Cong.	PSP	CPI	JS	OP	Ind.
Andhra Pradesh ..	43	37	—	2	—	2	2
Assam ..	12	9	2	—	—	—	1
Bihar ..	53	40	3	—	—	9	1
Bombay ..	66	37	5	4	2	9	9
Kerala ..	18	6	1	9	—	—	2
M. P. ..	36	35	—	—	—	1	—
Madras ..	41	31	—	2	—	—	8
Mysore ..	26	23	1	—	—	1	1
Orissa ..	20	7	2	1	—	7	3
Punjab ..	22	20	—	1	—	—	1
Rajasthan ..	22	19	—	—	—	—	3
Uttar Pradesh ..	86	69	4	1	2	1	9
West Bengal ..	36	23	2	6	—	2	3
Jammu & Kashmir ..	6	—	—	—	5	—	—
Delhi ..	5	5	—	—	—	—	—
Himachal Pradesh ..	4	3	—	—	—	—	—
Manipur ..	2	1	—	—	—	—	1
Tripura ..	2	1	—	1	—	—	—
	500	366	20	27	4	37	44

Notes—There was one vacancy each in Jammu & Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh.
Six nominated seats are not included.
OP means 'other parties.'

LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLIES OF THE STATES

(*Position in* 1959)

	No. of Seats	Cong.	PSP	CPI	JS	OP	Ind.
Andhra Pradesh	301 (1)	213	9	11	—	28	38
Assam ..	105	71	8	4	—	—	22
Bihar ..	318 (3)	206	32	7	—	55	15
Bombay ..	396	235	35	12	4	45	65
Kerala ..	126	43	9	60	—	—	14
M. P. ..	288 (3)	230	12	2	11	12	18
Madras ..	205 (1)	151	2	4	—	—	47
Mysore ..	208 (1)	148	18	1	—	4	36
Orissa ..	140 (2)	56	11	9	—	49	13
Punjab ..	154 (1)	118	1	6	9	5	14
Rajasthan ..	176	120	1	1	7	16	31
U. P. ..	430 (2)	287	45	8	18	—	70
West Bengal ..	252 (1)	151	21	45	—	8	26
Jammu & Kashmir	75	—	—	—	—	75	—

Note—Figures in the brackets indicate number of vacant seats.
OP (other parties) include various State parties, such as, Hindu Mahasabha, Janata Party, Ram Rajya Parisad, Ganatantra Parisad, Forward Bloc, Scheduled Castes Federation, National Conference, etc.

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FACTS ABOUT 1951 AND 1957 GENERAL ELECTIONS

	1951-52	1957
Lok Sabha		
Number & Seats	.. 489	494
No. of Constituencies	.. 401	403
No. of contesting candidates	.. 1874	1519
Legislative Assemblies		
Number of seats	.. 3283	3102
No. of constituencies	.. 2703	2518
No. of contesting candidates	.. 15,361	10,177
Total expenditure on Elections		
Both Lok Sabha & Assemblies	Rs. 10,45,47,099	Rs. 5,90,21,786

SCHEDULED CASTES & TRIBES IN INDIA

SCHEDULED CASTES, TRIBES AND BACKWARD CLASSES —There are certain classes of people among the population of India who are known as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes. These classes include 779 Scheduled Castes, 245 Scheduled Tribes and 198 nomadic tribes, besides a number of unspecified groups. The Scheduled Centres are now estimated at 5.53 crores and that of Scheduled Tribes 2.85 crores. The Scheduled Tribes live in remote forest regions, chiefly in Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal and Assam. These tribes are found in different levels of development—cultural or otherwise.

SPECIAL SAFEGUARDS—The Government of India have provided special safeguards for these Castes, Tribes and Backward Classes. These safeguards are listed below—

(1) *Indian Constitution*—Under Articles 15, 16 and 17 of the Indian Constitution, the State will not discriminate between any citizens on ground of religion race, caste, sex, place of birth. Under Article 19, the right to freedom is circumscribed by authorising the State to place reasonable restrictions for the protection of the interests of Scheduled Tribes. Under Article 46, the State should promote the educational, economic, and political interests of the weaker section of the people and in particular the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation. Article 25 empowers the State to throw open Hindu religious institutions of a public character. Under Article 17, untouchability is abolished and its practice in any form forbidden. Article 29 provides that no citizen can be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or aided by it on grounds of religion, race, caste or language. Under Article 164 the States of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa should have a Minister in charge of Tribal Welfare, who may,

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in addition, be in charge of the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Tribes or any other work of allied nature. The VIth and VIIth Schedules of the Constitution also provide for the administration and control of Scheduled areas and Scheduled Tribes and of Tribal areas of Assam by providing Tribal Advisory Council for Tribal areas.

Under Article 275 grants-in-aid are to be paid out of the Consolidated Fund of India for the promotion of the welfare of Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled areas.

Under Articles 330, 332 and 334 of the Constitution special representations in the Parliament and State Legislatures were accorded to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes for 10 years but by the amendment of the Indian Constitution in 1959, this constitutional provision for reservation of seats in legislatures for Scheduled Castes and Tribes, has been extended for another ten years from January, 1960.

(2) *Special Laws*—The Untouchability (Offences) Act of 1955 has been passed which provides penalties for preventing a person on the ground of untouchability, from entering a place of public worship, offering prayers therein, or taking waters from a sacred tank, well or spring. Denying access to any shop, public restaurant, public hospital or educational institution, hotel or any place of public entertainment, use of any road, river, well, tank, water tap, bathing-ghat, cremation ground, Dharamsala, etc. have been penalised. The Act also lays down penalties for refusing to sell goods or render services to a Harijan. There are also many legislative measures passed by the several States for removing social disabilities among the Hindus, such as Bihar Harijan (Removal of Civil Disabilities) Act 1949, Bombay Harijan (Removal of Civil Disabilities) Act of 1947, etc etc.

(3) *Administration of Scheduled and Tribal Areas*—Tribal Advisory Councils have been set up in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Punjab, Rajasthan, Bombay, Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal and Orissa. These Councils advise the Governor on such matters, concerning the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes and the development of the Scheduled Areas, as may be referred to them.

Part X of the Constitution read with the 5th and 6th Schedules provides for the administration and control of the Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes in States other than Assam and for the administration of Tribal areas of Assam, one Regional Council and 5 District Councils have been set up in the districts of the United Khasi-Jainta Hills, Garo Hills, Mizo Hills, North Cachar Hills and Mikir Hills. The Councils possess wide legislative and rule-making powers and also certain financial and taxation powers.

(4) *Welfare and other Agencies*—In addition to above, under proviso to Article 164 (1) of the Constitution, *Welfare Departments* have been set up in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh Assam, Bombay, Kerala, Madras, Mysore, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura. *A Special Officer* has been appointed by the President under Article 338 of the Indian Constitution to investigate all matters relating to the safeguards for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and to submit report to the President on the working of these safeguards.

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Facilities in the Government Services—The Government of India decided on January 26, 1950 that 12½ per cent of the vacancies for which recruitment is made by the open competition on all-India basis and 16⅔ per cent of the vacancies to which recruitment is made otherwise, should be reserved for the Scheduled Castes. As for Scheduled Tribes, vacancies are to be reserved at a uniform rate of 5 per cent in both open competition and otherwise. So the concessions granted to the Scheduled Castes and Tribes are as follows—(1) exemption of age limits (2) relaxation in the standard of suitability and of qualifications (3) selection subject to fulfilling the minimum standard of efficiency and (4) inclusion at least in the lower category for purposes of promotion where promotion is otherwise than through qualifying examination has been provided for. Principle of reservation has been extended to services filled by promotion through competitive examinations limited to departmental candidates, statutory and semi-autonomous bodies and Government limited companies.

Administration of Scheduled and Tribal Regions—under the Sixth Schedule of the Indian Constitution, one *Regional Council* and Five *District Councils* have been set up in the districts of the united Khasi-Jaintia Hills, Garo Hills, Mizo Hills, North Cachar Hills and Mikir Hills. Each of these District Councils consists of not more than 24 members, three-fourths of them being elected by adult franchise.

Fifth Schedule of the Constitution provides for the setting up of a *Tribes Advisory Council* in each of the States having Scheduled Areas and if the President directs, for constituting such Councils in States which have Scheduled Tribes but no Scheduled Areas. Tribes Advisory Councils have been set up in Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan and West Bengal. These Councils advise the Governors on such matters concerning the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled areas as may be referred to them. Tribal Advisory Committees have also been set up in Himachal Pradesh, Manipur, Tripura, Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands.

Specal Officers—There is Commissioner of Scheduled Castes and Tribes appointed by the President to investigate all matters relating to Scheduled Castes and Tribes and report to the President on the working of these safe-guards. There are 10 Assistant Commissioners to assist the Commissioner and Tribal Welfare Officer for Assam has been appointed.

Central Advisory Boards—The Central Advisory Boards have been formed by the Government of India to associate members of the Parliament and public workers with matters pertaining to the development of tribal areas and welfare of the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes. One is the *Tribal Welfare Board* and the other *Harijan Welfare Board*. The Boards advise the Government of India on all matters relating to the welfare of these classes.

Welfare Departments in the States—under proviso to Art. 164 (1) of the Indian Constitution, Welfare Departments under the

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charge of a Minister has been set up in the following States—Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Maharashtra, Jammu & Kashmir, Kerala, Mysore, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura.

Educational Concessions and Scholarships—Special educational concessions are given by the Government to the students of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes, such as, free tuition, stipends, scholarships, provision of books, etc. The Government of India have instituted special scholarships for these classes of students including overseas scholarships.

Tribal Research Institutes—Tribal research institutes have been started in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal. The Department of Anthropoogy is also carrying on extensive research on the social and cultural life of the Tribes.

Agriculture and Craft—Agriculture and forests are the principal mainstay of the tribal people. Almost the entire population who live in the interior hill districts of various States, practise shifting cultivation. The need for winning away the tribals from primitive forms of agriculture and setting them permanently on land are engaging the urgent attention of the Central and State Governments. The scheme for controlling the practice of shifting cultivation has been started in Assam, Andhra, Bihar, Madhaya Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura. The other works undertaken are—(1) establishment of demonstration farms (2) colonisation schemes (3) resettlement of tribal families (4) reclamation of land (5) distribution of seeds, fertilizers and bulls (6) producing wells and tanks (7) construction of bridle-paths and approach roads in inaccessible areas and hilly regions.

RESERVED SEATS IN PARLIAMENT AND STATE ASSEMBLIES

Parliament	*Scheduled castes*	*Scheduled tribes*		*Scheduled castes*	*Scheduled tribes*
Andhra Pradesh ..	6	2	Punjab ..	5	..
Assam ..	1	2*	Rajasthan ..	3	2
Bihar ..	7	5	Uttar Pradesh ..	18	..
Bombay ..	7	5	West Bengal ..	6	2
Jammu & Kashmir ..	..	..	Delhi ..	1	..
Kerala ..	2	0	Himachal Pradesh	1	..
M. P. ..	5	7	Manipur ..	—	1
Madras ..	7	..	Tripura ..	—	1
Mysore ..	3	..			
Orissa ..	4	4		76	31

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Legislative Assembly	Scheduled castes	Scheduled tribes		Scheduled castes	Scheduled tribes
Andhra Pradesh	.. 43	11	Mysore	.. 28	1
Assam	.. 5	26	Orissa	.. 25	29
Bihar	.. 40	32	Punjab	.. 33	..
Bombay	.. 43	31	Rajasthan	.. 28	20
Jammu & Kashmir	..	..	U. P.	.. 89	..
Kerala	.. 11	1	W. Bengal	.. 45	15
M. P.	.. 43	54			
Madras	.. 37	1		470	221

SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES.

	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes
India	.. 5,53,27,021	2,25,11,854
Andhra Pradesh	.. 44,15,995	11,49,919
Assam	.. 4,24,044	17,61,434
Bihar	.. 49,13,990	38,80,097
Bombay	.. 52,02,077	37,43,408
Jammu & Kashmir	.. 1,56,135	—
Kerala	.. 12,07,294	1,34,757
M. P.	.. 39,12,205	48,44,128
Madras	.. 53,81,836	1,36,376
Mysore ..	.. 25,83,142	80,402
Orissa	.. 26,29,250	30,09,580
Punjab	.. 34,90,983	2,661
Rajasthan	.. 25,02,202	17,74,278
Uttar Pradesh	.. 1,31,00,398	—
West Bengal	.. 47,43,713	15,66,868
Andaman & Nicobar Ils.	.. —	12,915
Delhi	.. 2,68,530	—
Himachal Pradesh	.. 3,19,972	27,928
Laccadive, Minicoy & Amindivi Ils.	—	13,486
Manipur	.. 28,647	1,94,239
Tripura	.. 46,608	1,92,293

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AWARDS, HONOURS, PRIZES

NATIONAL AWARDS

Bharat Ratna.

This is India's highest award. It is made for exceptional work in the advancement of art, literature and science and in recognition of public service of the highest order. The decoration takes the form of a *peepal* leaf 25/16 inches long, 1¼ inches wide and ⅛ of an inch thick. It is of toned bronze. The receipants of the Awards up-to-date :—

C. Rajagopalachari.
Dr. Radhakrishnan.
Dr. C. V. Raman.
Dr. Bhagawan Das.
Dr. M. Visvesvaraya.
Jawaharlal Nehru.
Pt. Govind Ballabh Pant.
Dr. D. K. Karve (1957).
K. R. I. Doraiswami.
Dr. B. C. Roy (1961).
Purushottam Das Tandon (1961).

PADMA BHUSAN, 1961

A. R. Wadia ; Bhagwan Sahay; Govind Das ; Dr. Krishnaswamy Venkataraman ; L. A. Venkatakrishna Iyer ; Niranjandas Gulhati ; Rai Krishandas ; Dr. R. B. Billimoria ; Sumitra Nandan Pant ; S. Roerich ; Dr. T. N. Banerjee ; Dr. Verrier Elwin ; Vindhyeshwari Prosad Varma.

PADMA SHRI, 1961

A. Krishnamachar ; Amar Kumar Shah ; B. D. Mehta ; Bismillah Khan ; Dr. Brahm Prakash ; Miss Evangeline Lazarus ; Dr. Miss Hilda Mary Lazarus ; Brig. Gyan Singh ; Bibi-Harparkash Kuar ; Muni Shri Jin Vijayja ; Sm. Kamalabai Hospet ; Kartar Singh Dewana ; K. K. Hebbar ; Prop. M. J. K. Menon ; Man Mohan Suri ; Sm. Mithuben Petit ; M. R. Jamdar ; N. D. Sundara Vadivelu ; Dr. Parasuram Mishra ; Premendra Mittra ; R. K. Phadke ; Soman Narboo ; V. V. Patil ; V. K. Gokak ; Vishnukant Jha ; V. E. Vikhe Patil.

SAHITYA AKADEMI AWARDS, 1959

The Executive Board of the Sahitya Akadami has awarded prizes of Rs. 5,000 each to the following books during 1956-58.

Bengali—Kalikatar Kachhei by Gajendra Kumar Mittra.
Hindi—*Sanskiti ke Char Adhaya* by Ramdhari Sinha 'Dinkar.'
Kannada—Yakshagana Bayalata, treatise on Kannada Folk drama by K. S. Karanth.
Marathi—*Bharatiya Sahitya Shastra* by G. T. Deshpande.
Punjabi—*Wadda Vela*, poems by Mohan Singh.
Urdu—*Urdu Drama Aur Stage* by Syed Masood Hasan Rizvi.
Sindhi—*Kanwar*, a biography by Tirth Vasant.

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RABINDRA MEMORIAL PRIZE

(*West Bengal Government Award*)

1949-50 Nihar Ranjan Ray, (*Bangalir Itihas*).
1950-51 Satinath Bhaduri, ((*Jagori*).
1951-52 Brojendranath Banerjee.
1952-53 Dinesh Chandra Bhattacherjee.
1953-54 Rani Chanda, (*Purna Kumbha*).
1954-55 Rajsekhar Bose, (*Krishnakali*).
Tarasankar Banerjee, (*Arogya Niketan*).
1955-56 Samarendranath Sen, (*Vigyaner Itihas*).
1956-57 Pravat Kumar Mukerjee (*Rabindra Jibani*—4 vols.).
Dr. R. C. Majumdar (*History & Culture of the Indian People*—4 vols. (English).
1957-58 Premendra Mittra (*Sagar Theke Fera*).
Benoy Ghosh (*Paschim Banger Sanskriti*).
Dr. Suniti K. Chatterjee (*Literature Mediavali E. Moderne Del Subcontinente Indiano* (*in Italian*).
1958-59 Upendranath Bhattacharya (*Banglar Baul O Bangla Gan*). Haridas Mukherjee & Mrs. Uma Mukherjee (*Origin of National Education Movement*).
1959-60 Pramathanath Bisi (*Carey Saheber Munshi*).
Radhagovinda Nath (*Gauriya Vaishnava Darshan*).

LALIT KALA AKADEMI AWARDS, 1960.

Paintings
1. Somnath Hore.
2. Himatlal D. Shah.

Sculptures
1. Narendra M. Patel.
2. M. Dharmoni.
3. Rajnikant P. Panchal.

SANGIT NATAK AKADEMI AWARDS, 1960-61

Drama : Prabhulal Dwivedi, (Playwright) ; Kasam Bhai Mir, (Director) ; Sthanam Narasimharao, (Andhra) ; Nrityadeo Mahanti, (Assam) ; Subbaiah Naidu, (Kannada); Sheela Vatsa, (Punjab); Samuel Sahu alias Babi, (Orissa).
Dance : Ramunni Nair, (Kathakali); Amudon Sharma, (Manipuri) ; Bapu Khude Narayanagavkar and Vedantam Satyanarayana, (traditional).
Music : Mirashi Buwa, (Hindustani vocal music ; Kanthe Maharaj (Hindustani instrumental music) ; Mudikondan Venkatarama Iyer, (Karnataka vocal music); Subramania Pillai (Karnataka instrumental music).
Film : Lalita Power (acting); Pradeep (lyric composer); Mukhram Sharma, (script writer).

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HONOURS TO SANSKRIT & PERSIAN SCHOLARS, 1960

The Scheme of awards introduced by the Government of India in 1958 is intended to accord recognition to eminent Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian scholars and to encourage advanced study in these languages. Along with a Sanad, the scholars are granted Rs. 1,500 per annum for life and a Robe of Honour—

Sanskrit—Dr. Shripad Krishna Belvalkar, Nurani Subrahmanya Upadhaya, Ananta Krishna Sastri, Kalipada Tarkacharya and Kasi Krishnacharya.

Arabic—Dr. Mustafa Hasan Alvi.

NATIONAL PROFESSORS

The Government of India created posts of National Professorship of India in 1949. The National Professorship carries a salary of Rs. 2,500 per month and has been created so that the holders may devote their entire energies to research work, which they may carry on in any university or institution of their choice.

1949 Dr. C. V. Raman.
1958 S. N. Bose.
1958 Dr. K. S. Krishnan.
1959 Dr. Radhabinode Pal (*Jurisprudence*).
Dr. P. V. Kane (*Indology*).

ORDER OF PRECEDENCE OF WEARING VARIOUS MEDALS AND DECORATIONS

(1). Bharat Ratna; (2). Param Vir Chakra; (3). Ashoka Chakra, Class 1; (4). Padma Vibhushan; (5). Padma Bhusan; (6). Maha Vir Chakra; (7). Ashoka Chakra, Class II; (8). Padma Shri; (9). Vir Chakra; (10). Ashoka Chakra, Class III; (11). President's Police and Fire Services Medal (for gallantry); (12). Police Medal (for gallantry); (13). General Services Medal, 1947; (14). President's Police and Fire Services Medal (for distinguished service); (15). Meritorious Service Medal; (16). Long Service and Good Conduct Medal; (17). Police Medal (for meritorious service); (18). Territorial Army Decoration; (19). Territorial Army Medal; (20). Indian Independence Medal, 1947; (21). Independence Medal, 1950; (22). Commonwealth Awards; (23). Other Awards.

INDIAN MINISTRIES

FUNCTIONS AND ORGANISATION—SCOPE OF WORK

Designation of Minister	*Ministry of Department*
1. Prime Minister	.. External Affairs, Department of Atomic Energy, Prime Minister's Secretariat, Cabinet Secretariat and Partition Secretariat.

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2.	Minister of Commerce and Industry.	Commerce and Industry.
3.	Minister of Community Development and Co-operation.	Community Development and Co-operation.
4.	Minister of Defence ..	Defence.
5.	Minister of Education. ..	Education.
6.	Minister of Finance ..	Finance.
7.	Minister of Food and Agriculture ..	Food and Agriculture.
8.	Minister of Health ..	Health.
9.	Minister of Home Affairs ..	Home Affairs.
10.	Minister of Information and Broadcasting. ..	Information and Broadcasting.
11.	Minister or Irrigation and Power ..	Irrigation and Power.
12.	Minister of Labour and Employment and Planning. ..	Labour and Employment and Planning Commission.
13.	Minister of Law ..	Law.
14.	Minister of Parliamentary Affairs	Department of Parliamentary Affairs.
15.	Minister of Railways ..	Railways.
16.	Minister of Rehabilitation and Minority Affairs.	Rehabilitation and Minority Affairs.
17.	Minister of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs.	Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs.
18.	Minister of Steel, Mines and Fuel	Steel, Mines and Fuel.
19.	Minister of Transport and Communications.	Transport and Communications.
20.	Minister of Works, Housing and Supply.	Works, Housing and Supply.

MINISTRY OF EXTERNAL AFFAIRS

The Ministry of External Affairs is responsible for the conduct of India's relations with foreign countries. The Ministry is also responsible for the country's representation in the United Nations and advises other Ministries and State Governments when the latter have dealings with foreign Governments or institutions. In the domestic sphere, it is responsible for the administration of NEFA and Naga Hills-Tuensang Area and for matters of policy relating to former French possessions in India. All Consular functions ; All emigration under Indian Emigration Act. Foreign Settlement of India ; Indian Foreign Service ; Indian Frontier Administrative Service ; External Publicity ; Pilgrimages to places outside India ; Protection of rights of minority communities in India and Pakistan; Foreign jurisdiction ; Demarcation of the land frontier of India ; Hospitality grant of the Government of India. Besides raids and incidents on land borders of India etc. etc.

MINISTRY OF DEFENCE

The functions of the Ministry are as follows—

(a) Defence of India and every part thereof including preparation for defence and all such Acts as may be conductive in times of

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war to its prosecution and after its termination to effective demolilisation.

(b) Maintenance of Land, Naval and Air Forces of India including National Cadet Corps, Auxiliary Cadet Corps, Territorial Army and Lok Sahayak Sena.

(c) Formation of Cantonments, delimitation-excision of Cantonment areas, local self-government in such areas, the constitution of Cantonment Boards.

(d) Army, Navy and Air Force works including ordnance factories.

(e) Acquisition and derequisitioning of property for Defence Services.

(f) Defence production and Inspection Organisation.

(g) Works relating to Army, Navy, Air Force and Ordnance Factories.

(h) Bharat Electronics (Private) Ltd.

(i) Remounts, Veterinary and Farms Organisation.

(j) Canteen Stores.

(k) Defence Research and Development Organisation.

(l) Civilian Services paid from Defence Estimates.

(m) Matters relating to ex-servicemen including pensioners.

(n) Hindustan Aircraft.

THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE

This Ministry is responsible for the following functions :—

(1) Administration of the finances of the Central Government and dealing with finances affecting the whole country.

(2) Raising the necessary revenues for carrying on the administration and regulating the taxation and borrowing policies of the Government.

(3) Administration of problems relating to banking and currency and in consultation with the Ministries concerned arranging for the proper utilization of the country's foreign exchange.

(4) Controlling the entire expenditure of the Government in cooperation with Ministries and Departments concerned.

Departments—The Ministry is organised into the following three Departments—(1) Department of Revenue (2) Department of Expenditure and (3) Department of Economic Affairs. *Department of Revenue* deals with Income-tax, Expenditure tax, Wealth tax and Estate Duty, Customs, Central Excise, opium and narcotics and Central functions under the Indian Stamp Act. All matters relating to Central Board of Revenue.

Department of Expenditure has the following four Divisions—(1) Establishment Division (2) Civil Expenditure Division (3) Special Re-organisation Unit (4) Defence Expenditure Division.

Department of Economic Affairs—has the following six Divisions —(1) Budget Division (2) Planning Division (3) Internal Finance Division (4) External Finance Division (5) Economic Division (6) Insurance Division.

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MINISTRY OF HOME AFFAIRS

This Ministry deals mainly with matters relating to Public Services, Public Security and Union Territories and also with various other matters, namely, schemes for the welfare of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other backward classes and grants of financial assistance to States necessary for such schemes, appointment and conditions of service of Chief Justice and other judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts and examination of Bills passed by the State Legislatures and reserved for President's assents and co-ordination of man-power work at the Centre as well as amongst the various States.

MINISTRY OF LAW

The main functions of this Ministry are as follows—

1. To advise other Ministries and Departments of Government on legal matters, including conveyancing and litigation, drafting Central Bills, Ordinances and Regulations and follow them up in their various stages up to their enactment or promulgation.
2. To draft Bills and Ordinances for States, whenever necessary, to scrutinise statutory rules and orders from legal and drafting points of view.
3. To make arrangements for the publication of Central enactments, as and when necessary, in a convenient form.

This Ministry is responsible for all legislative and other actions pertaining to subjects alloted to it, including elections to Parliament, Legislatures of States and the offices of the President and the Vice-President, and matters relating to the Election Commission, the Law Commission and the Income Tax Appellate Tribunal.

The Ministry of Law has been split up into two separate Departments—(1) *Legal Affairs Department*—This Department deals with the advisory and conveyancing work, arrangements for the conduct of Government litigation and matters relating to Election Commission and the Income-tax Appellate Tribunal. (2) *The Legislative Department* deals with legislative drafting, co-ordination between the Centre and the States in legislative drafting, publication of Central laws, implementation of the recommendations of the Law Commission relating to statute law revision and legislative subjects allotted to the Ministry.

The Department of Legal Affairs has the following sections—(1) Advise Section (2) Litigation Section (3) Judicial Section (4) Central Agency Section (5) Election Section.

The Legislative Department has the following sections—(1) Legislative I Section is in-charge of drafting of all bills, ordinances and regulations (2) Legislative II Section deals with the work relating to legislative proposals (including private member's bills) on subjects in the concurrent field, i.e., marriage and divorce, minors, intestacy, succession, personal laws, evidence. It is also concerned with the processing of action for the implementation of the recommendations of Law Commission.

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Publication Branch—There is a Publication Branch of the Department with the following four sections—(*a*) Publication Section (*b*) General Statutory Rules & Orders Section (*c*) Corrrection Section (*d*) Printing Section.

Translation Section—The functions of this Section are to prepare Hindi translations of Central Acts, Statutory Rules and Orders, Ordinances, Regulations, etc.

Law Commission—This is a permanent Commission for the revision of laws in India.

MINISTRY OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

This Ministry is responsible for the regulation and fostering of trade and commerce, the control and regulation of imports and exports, negotiation of trade agreements with foreign countries, determination of tariffs, commercial representation overseas, promotion of exports, and participation at Government level in fairs and exhibitions held abroad. On the 'Industries' side, the Ministry's activities include the encouragement and ordered development of large and small industries in the private and public sectors, assistance to industries, development and control of plantation industries and active promotion of overall industrialisation. The Ministry also exercies control over production and distribution, prices of certain essential commodities and administration of the Companies Act and regulation of Forward Trading.

MINISTRY OF STEEL, MINES AND FUEL

This Ministry which was formed in 1957 consists of two Departments—

Department of Iron and Steel.

Department of Mines and Fuel.

Department of Iron and Steel.

1. Steel plants in the Public and Private sectors (i.e. Tatas, Indian Iron & Steel Co., Mysore Iron and Steel Works, Rourkela, Bhilai and Durgapur Steel Plants) and all future developments in the Iron and Steel Industry.
2. Re-rolling Industry and Ferro-alloys.
3. Iron and Steel Control.

The Department of Mines and Fuel—(4) Administers the following—(a) Coal Controller (b) Coal Board (c) Geological Survey of India (d) Indian Bureau of Mines (e) Controller of Mining leases. (5) Production, supply, distribution and prices of coal and coke. (6) National Coal Development Corporation Ltd., Ranchi (7) Neyveli Lignite Corporation Ltd., Madras (8) Indian Mining and Construction Co. Ltd., Calcutta (9) Setting up of synthetic oil plants and low temperature carbonization plants for production of smokeless domestic coke (10) Coal Council of India (11) Fuel Efficiency Committee (12) Administration of the Coal Mines (Conservation and Safety) Act 1952 (13) Administration of Coal-Bearing Areas (Acquisition and Development) Act 1957 (14) Administration of Oil and

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Natural Gas Commission Act, 1959 (15) Regulation of Mines and Minerals (Regulation and Development) Act 1957 and other Union laws (16) Mineral Advisory Board (17) Regional Advisory Councils (18) Orissa Mining Corporation, Bhubaneswar (19) Sikkim Mining Corporation (20) National Mineral Development Corporation (21) Oil and Natural Gas Commission, Dehra Dun (22) Production, supply, distribution and prices of petroleum and petroleum products (23) Exploration for exploitation of oil resources in India and utilization of Natural gas and Refinery gases (24) Establishment of oil refineries in India (25) Indian Refineries, New Delhi, Assam and Bihar Oil Refineries (26) Production of refinery products by Standard Vaccum, Burma Shell, Caltex and Assam Oil Co. (27) Setting up of lubricating oil plants (28) setting up of distribution organisation for the sale of petroleum and petroleum products, *i.e.*, Indian Oil Co. Ltd. (29) Utilization and establishment of industries based on natural gas and refinery bye-products (30) Petroleum Consumers Advisory Council (31) Committee to advise on problems of common interests concerning petroleum products (32) Regulation of oil fields and development of mineral oil etc.

MINISTRY OF RAILWAYS

The function of the Ministry of Railways is performed by the Railway Board. The Railway Board exercises all the powers of the Central Government in respect of regulation, construction, maintenance and operation of Railways. The Railway Board consists of a Chairman and four members, one of whom is the the Financial Commissioner and the three other members of the Railway Board are in charge of the following, namely, Staff, Transportation and Engineering. There are also Five Additional members in charge of works, mechanical, commercial, finance and staff matters respectively.

The Chairman of the Railway Board is the *ex-officio* Secretary to the Government of India in the Ministry of Railways.

All business connected with Railway Inspectorate and Government owned-collieries.

MINISTRY OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

The Department of Transport is responsible for the following subjects—

(1) Major and Minor Ports (2) Shipping and Shipyards (3) Light-houses and Lightships (4) Inland Water Transport (5) Road Transport (6) Coordination of different means of transport, including Railways (7) Road Development, including National Highways (8) Central Road Fund (9) Tourism.

In order to facilitate its working, the Department has been divided into two Wings—

1. *Transport wing*, dealing with Ports, Shipping & Shipyards, Inland Water Transport, Road Transport and Co-ordination of Transport and

2. *Road wing*, dealing with matters concerning construction and development of roads including National Highways.

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A separate Department of Tourism was created in March 1958 under the charge of a Director-General to deal with matters exclusively concerning Tourism.

The names of the attached and subordinate units of the Transport Department are (1) Department of Tourism (2) Directorate General of Shipping (3) Department of Lighthouses and Lightships (4) Inter-State Transport Communication (5) Calcutta Port Commissioners (6) Bombay Port Trust (7) Madras Port Trust (8) Vizagapatnam Port (9) Cochin Port (10) Kandla Port Project (11) Pondicherry Port Project (12) Hindustan Shipyard Project (13) Eastern Shipping Corporation (14) Western Shipping Corporation (15) Ganga-Brahmaputra Water Transport Board.

THE MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND EMPLOYMENT

This Ministry has the responsibility for the following subjects—

(i) Labour Welfare and Trade Unions.
(ii) Industrial and Labour Disputes.
(iii) Factory Labour.
(iv) Unemployment Insurance and Health Insurance, etc.
(v) Labour employed in Railways, major ports, mines and oil fields.
(vi) Resettlement of demobilised soldiers and discharged man workers.
(vii) Participation in the International Labour Conference and work connected with it.

MINISTRY OF FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

This Ministry is comprised of two Departments—(1) *Agriculture* (2) *Food. The Department of Agriculture* is responsible for the following functions—

1. Agricultural Production.
2. Agricultural Research, Education and Extension.
3. Animal Husbandry, Fisheries and Forestry.
4. Fruit and Vegetable Products Industry.
5. Agricultural Economics and Statistics.
6. Agricultural Development.
7. Liaison with Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations and other International Organisations and economic aid in the agricultural sector.
8. Procurement and Distribution of Fertilizers.
9. Agricultural Marketing.
10. Co-operation.
11. Land Reclamation.
12. Tube-well and minor irrigation.
13. Soil Conservation.

Department of Food has the following functions—

1. Procurement of food-grains for civil and military requirements.
2. Distribution of imported food-grains among States.

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3. Co-ordination, planning and guidance in regard to food policy from an all-India point of view.
4. Regulating import and export of food-grains.

MINISTRY OF IRRIGATION AND POWER

Besides laying down the general policy for the development of water and power resources, the Ministry performs the following among other functions—

(1) Watching the progress of the projects in the Irrigation and Power sector and of costs against estimates.

(2) Examination of schemes formulated by the States for inclusion in the Plan.

(3) Study of International aspects of utilization of water resources.

(4) Optimum utilization of plant and machinery, available with State Governments/project authorities.

(5) Formulation of measurers for ensuring efficiency and economy in the execution of River Valley Projects.

(6) Arranging for the foreign exchange requirements of the Projects.

In addition, works relating to Muslim Wakfs under Wakfs Act of 1954 and the Delhi Muslim Wakfs Act of 1943 are also the responsibility of this Ministry.

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

The Ministry of Education is divided into following eight Divisions—

1. Administrative Division.
2. Elementary and Basic Education Division.
3. Secondary Education Division.
4. Higher Education and UNESCO Division.
5. Social Education and Social Welfare Division.
6. Scholarships Division.
7. Physical Education and Recreation Division.
8. Hindi Division.

For the implementation of the *National Discipline Scheme*, a *Directorate of National Discipline Scheme* of the status of a subordinate office was established on the 15th September 1959. The *National Institute of Audio-Visual Education*, hitherto functioning as a Unit of the Ministry, was established as a separate organisation of the status of a subordinate office in 1959. It is decided to set up a *Hindi Directorate* as a separate organisation of the status of a subordinate office to deal with the work at present being dealt with in the Hindi Division of the Ministry.

MINISTRY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS

The Ministry consists of the following Divisions—

1. Scientific Research Division (including Scientific Surveys).

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2. Technical Education Division.
3. Cultural Division.
4. External Relations Division.
5. Cultural Scholarships and Publications Division.
6. Administrative Division.

In addition, there are the following separate units : Gazetteers Unit, History of Freedom movement unit and the Copyright office.

MINISTRY OF HEALTH

This Ministry is responsible for the following functions—

(1) Administration of central health institutions.

(2) Promotion of medical research, regulation and development of medical pharmaceutical, dental and nursing professions in consultation with the State Governments and the Statutory Councils concerned and laying down the standards of education for these professions.

(3) Establishment and maintenance of drugs standards in consultation with the State Governments, and prevention of adulteration of food.

(4) Promoting investigations into particular health problems.

(5) Promoting through the Central Council of Local Self-Government and otherwise, discussions and exchange of information on problems relating to Panchayats and other local bodies.

(6) International health relations and administration of port quarantine.

MINISTRY OF INFORMATION AND BROADCASTING

The Ministry is responsible for the publicity of the Government of India—Internal. It has under if the following agencies—

(*a*) All India Radio (*b*) Film Division (*c*) Central Board of Film Censors (*d*) Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity (*e*) Press Information Bureau (*f*) Publications Division (*g*) Research and Reference Division (*h*) office of the Registrar of Newspapers for India (*i*) Directorate of field publicity (*j*) Song and Drama Division (*k*) Integrated Photo Unit.

Subjects dealt with are as follows—

(*a*) *Radio*—(1) All business connected with A.I.R. (2) Development of Broadcasting throughout the Union.

(*b*) *Films*—(1) Production and Distribution of documentories, newsreels and other films and film strips for internal and external publicity (2) Legislation under entry 60 of the Union List *viz.*, sanctioning of Cinematograph Films for Exhibition (3) Administration and certification of cinematograph films for public exhibition by Central Board of Film Censors (4) grant of State Awards for films produced in India (5) grants to Children's Film Society (6) Promotion of export of cinematograph films for public exhibition (7) Liaison with the Film Industry (8) Film Institute and Film Production Bureau (9) Promotion of export of film for public exhibition.

(*c*) *Advertising and Visual Publicity*—(1) .Production and release of all display advertisements of the Government of India

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through the media of Press, posters, folders, calendars, blotters, leaflets, hoardings, cinema slides, etc., and also release of all classified advertisements on behalf of the Government of India (2) publicity through exhibitions (3) grant of state awards for excellance in printing and designing of books, etc.

(*d*) *Press*—(1) Presentation and interpretation of the policies and activities of the Government of India through the Press (2) Publicity to and for the Armed Forces (3) Administration of the Press and Registration of Books Act 1867 relating to Newspapers (3) Administration of the Newspaper (Price and Page) Act 1956 (4) Implementation of the recommendation of the Press Commission.

(*e*) *Publications*—(1) Production, sale and distribution of popular pamphlets, books and journals in matters of national interest, etc.

(f) *Research and Reference.*

(*g*) *Field Publicity*—to carry message of the Plan in rural areas through cinema shows, lectures, etc.

(*h*) *Song and Drama*—to publicise the Plan through song drama, arts, etc.

(*i*) *Integrated Photo Unit*—News coverage and photographic assignment.

(*j*) *Central Information Service.*

MINISTRY OF WORKS, HOUSING AND SUPPLY

The principal responsibilities of this Ministry relate to—

1. Civil Works.
2. Procurement and allotment of office and residential accomodation and management of Government Estates at Delhi, Simla, Bombay, Calcutta and other places ; Government Hotels and Hotel Janpath.
3. Administration of housing policy of the Government ; collection and dissemination of technical information and promotion of research in and standardisation of building materials, designs etc.
4. Purchase and Disposal of Government Stores.
5. Administration of Government Lands.
6. Printing and Stationery.
7. Pay and Accounts.
8. Explosives.
9. Boilers Board.
10. Hindustan Housing Factory Ltd.
11. Ashoka Hotels Ltd.

MINISTRY OF REHABILITATION

*(1) Camps for displaced persons from East Pakistan.
*(2) Relief for displaced persons.
*(3) Rehabilitation of dispaced persons.
*(4) Assistance to displaced persons from East Pakistan in setting up business or industry including provision of settlement on land.
*(5) Housing of displaced persons.

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*(6) Setting up of industries in displaced persons' townships and colonies and places.
*(7) Matters relating to grants-in-aid to educational, medical and cultural institutions.
*(8) Training and employment of displaced persons from East Pakistan.
(9) Management of evacuee property.
(10) Evacuee Interest (Separation) Act 1951.
(11) Transfer of Evacuee Deposits Act, 1954.
(12) Displaced Persons (Debts Adjustment) Act, 1951.
(13) All negotiations concerning evacuee property.
(14) Verifications of displaced persons' claims for immovable property left in West Pakistan.
(15) Settlement of verified claims and payment of rehabilitation grants to displaced persons in respect of immovable property left by them in West Bengal.
(16) Valuation and disposal of Government built and evacuee properties.
(17) Verification and payment of claims of displaced Government servants of undivided provinces and servants of States and local bodies in respect of pensions, Providend Fund, leave salary & Security Deposits.
*(18) Rehabilitation of migrants from Pakistan occupied areas of Jammu & Kashmir.
(19) Dandakaranya Scheme.
(20) Minority Affairs in East Pakistan and adjacent States in India.

MINISTRY OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND COOPERATION

(*a*) *Department of Community Developments*

1. Rural Community Development Programme.
2. Training of Block Development Officers and social education organisers.
3. Central Institute of Study and Research in Community Development.
4. In-service training of Community Development Personnel.
5. Training of (*i*) Instructors in Community Development (*ii*) District Panchayat Officers (*iii*) Non-Officials connected with Community Development Programme.
6. Collection and collation of information with regard to village Panchayats in all States and Union Territories and assisting the States to encourage panchayats to become better instruments of Community Development.

*Central Government is mainly concerned with questions of policy and not directly concerned with administrative and executive details which is left in the hands of the State Governments.

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Note:—The Central Government is mainly concerned with major questions of policy. The responsibility for planning and implementation of the programme vests in the State Governments.

(*b*) *Department of Co-operation*

1. Co-operation.
2. Rural finance, agricultural indebtedness and credit.
3. Matters relating to National Co-operative Organisations.
4. Incorporation, regulation and winding of Co-operative Societies with objects not confined to one State.

PLANNING COMMISSION

1. Assessment of resources.
2. Priorities and allocation of resources.
3. Problems of planning.
4. Formulation of the Development plans of the Central and State Governments.
5. Planning of Industrial Development.
6. Public Co-operation and National Development.

Notes:—The Planning Commission will be concerned broadly with technical questions relating to planning and planning organisation itself.

DEPARTMENT OF PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS

This Department is responsible for the following functions—

1. Fixing the dates of the commencement and the duration of the sessions of both Houses of Parliament, in consultation with the Speaker and the Chairman.
2. Planning and Co-ordination of legislative and other official basiness for Parliament.
3. Fixation of orders of priority of Government business in both Houses of Parliament.
4. Advice to Ministers on Parliamentary matters.
5. Implementation of assurances, undertakings and promises given on the floor of the Parliament on behalf of the Government.
6. Determination of the Government's attitude to private Member's bills and resolutions.
7. Constitution and working of Informal Consultative Committees of members of Parliament for different Ministries, Departments and zonal railways.
8. Laws relating to salaries and allowances of members of Parliament, the Chairman, the Deputy Chairman of the Rajya Sabha and the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of the Lok Sabha.
9. Co-ordination of action to be taken by Ministries on the recommendations of general application made by Parliamentary Committees.

DEPARTMENT OF ATOMIC ENERGY

This is a new Department under the Prime Minister of India for looking after—

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(1) All the business of the Government of India relating to atomic energy.

(2) Financial assistance for the furtherance of the studies in the nuclear sciences and for building up an adequately trained man-power for the development of atomic energy programme.

(3) All matters connected with the advancement of mathematics.

(4) Delegations/deputations connected with matters relating to nuclear science, atomic energy and mathematics or for training in these subjects, visits of eminent scientists and mathematicians to India.

(5) International relations in matters connected with atomic energy.

(6) Execution of works and purchase of land debitable to the capital budget of the Department of Atomic Energy.

(7) Procurement of stores and equipment required by the Department of Atomic Energy.

(8) Financial sanctions relating to the Department of Atomic Energy.

THE FIVE-YEAR PLANS

FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN

The Planning Commission was set up in March 1950 by a resolution of the Government of India, which was entrusted with the task of preparing a plan for the "most effective and balanced utilisation of the country's resources." The Commission published India's first Five-Year Plan in its final form in December, 1952. It covered the period from April 1952 to March 1956.

OBJECTIVE OF THE PLAN—The central objective of planning in India is to raise the standard of living and opening to the people opportunities for a richer and more varied life. It must, therefore, aim both at using more effectively the available human and material resources and at reducing inequalities of income, wealth and opportunity. Although in the initial stages of the Plan, the emphasis must be on the increasing production, planning should not be confined to stimulating economic activity within the social and economic framework ; the framework itself had to be remoulded so as to secure progressively for all members of the community full employment, education, security against sickness and other disabilities and an adequate income.

While India's population had increased by 52 per cent during the course of five decades, the increase in agriculture and industrial production was less than proportionate.

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The level of consumption, private incomes and savings were all extremely low. Shortages were universal. There were not enough of food to go round, not enough houses to meet the needs of an expanding community. The prices of essential commodities were rising steadily ; on the other hand, the partition of India caused considerable damage to India's economy.

Before any real increase in the standard of life becomes possible, agriculture must be rationalised and industry put on more secure foundation ; and a better relation between the two spheres so ordered, that opportunities for employment in industry would grow, and relieve chronic under-employment in agriculture. So the Planning Commission in 1950 was asked to draw up a plan which would lead to the "most balanced and effective use of our national resources."

TOTAL INVESTMENT IN THE FIRST TWO PLANS

The total investment in the economy during the first two Plans will be little over Rs. 10,000 crores. Outlay in the public sector will amount to about Rs. 6,560 crores. The details are given below—

	1st Plan	*Second Plan (anticipated)*	*Total*
	1951-56	1956-61	1951-61
Public Sector outlay ..	1,960	4,600	6,560
Public Sector investment ..	1,560	3,650	5,210
Private Sector investment ..	1,800	3,100	4,900
Total Investment ..	3,360	6,750	10,100

ACHIEVEMENTS OF TWO PLANS—National income at constant prices increased by 18.4 p.c. from about Rs. 8,850 crores in 1950-51 to about 10,480 crores in 1955-56. The per capita income over the same period, also at constant prices, recorded an increase of 10.8 p.c. from Rs. 246 to Rs. 274, while per capita consumption increased by about 8 per cent. The rate of investment in the economy as a percentage of national income is estimated to have risen from about 5 per cent in 1950-51 to over 7 per cent in the last year of the Plan.

SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN

Objectives of the Second Plan—The main objectives of the Second Plan are (1) an increase of 25 per cent in the national income (2) rapid industrialisation with particular emphasis on the development of basic and heavy industries (3) a large expansion of employment opportunities and (4) a reduction of inequities in income and wealth and a more even distribution of economic power.

Outlay of the Second Plan—The estimated development outlay of Central and State Governments amounted to Rs. 4,800 crores as compared to the target of Rs. 2,356 crores and actual outlay of Rs. 1,960 crores, under the 1st Five-Year Plan.

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DISTRIBUTION OF SECOND PLAN OUTLAY

(*In Crores of Rupees*)

	Centre	*States*	*Total*	*Investment outlay*	*Current outlay*
Agriculture & Community Development	65	502	568	338	230
Irrigation & Power	150	808	913	863	50
Industry & Mining	747	143	980	790	100
Transport & Communications	1,203	182	1,385	1,335	50
Social Services	396	549	945	455	490
Miscellaneous	43	56	99	19	80
Total	2,559	2,240	4,800	3,800	1,000

ESTIMATED RESOURCES OF THE SECOND PLAN

(*In Crores of Rupees*)

Surplus from the current Revenue	800	Resources to be raised externally	800
Borrowing from the public	1,200	Deficit financing	1,200
Other budgetary sources	400	Gap to be covered by additional measures to raise domestic resources	400
			4,800

REVISED ALLOCATION OF SECOND PLAN

On a reassessment of resources, it was decided to split the plan outlay into two parts. Part A of the Second Plan involving an outlay of Rs. 4,500 crores would represent the level of outlay upto which, on the present assessment of resources, commitments might be entered to. The remaining schemes were to be included in Part B of the Plan, which will be undertaken to the extent of resources become available.

(*In Crores of Rupees*)

	Revised allocation	*p. c. of original total outlay*	*p. c. of revised total outlay*	*Part A of Plan*	*p. c. of total outlay (Part A of Plan)*
Agriculture & Community Development	568	11.8	11.8	510	11.3
Irrigation & Power	860	19.0	17.9	820	18.2
Village & small industries	200	4.2	4.2	160	3.6
Industries & Minerals	880	14.4	18.4	790	17.5

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Transport & Communications	1,345	28.9	28.0	1,340	29.8
Social Services	863	19.7	18.0	810	18.0
Miscellaneous	84	2.0	1.7	70	1.6
Total	4,800	100.0	100.0	4,500	100.0

THIRD FIVE YEAR PLAN

Aims of the Third Plan—The main aim of the Third Plan is to take the country as far as possible towards the stage of self-generation. The other main aims are—progressive reduction of economic and social inequities, the bringing about of technological changes, particularly in agriculture, a fuller use of manpower and the promotion of co-operatives both in agriculture and in industry. So we can sum up the aims as follows—

(i) To secure during the Third Plan a rise in national income of over 5 per cent per annum, the pattern of investment being designed also to sustain this rate of growth during subsequent Plan periods ;

(ii) to achieve self-sufficiency in foodgrains, and increase agricultural production to meet the requirements of industry and exports ;

(iii) to expand basic industries like steel, fuel and power and establish machine-building capacity, so that the requirements of further industrialisation can be met within a period of 10 years or so mainly from the country's own resources ;

(iv) to utilise to the fullest extent possible the manpower resources of the country and to ensure a substantial expansion in employment opportunities ; and

(v) to bring about a reduction of inequalities in income and wealth and a more even distribution of economic power.

Investment of the Third Plan—The draft outline of the Third Plan shows that Rs. 11,250 crores will be spent on national development during the Five-Year period 1961-66. Of this sum, actual investment will amount to as much as Rs. 10,200 crores, the remaining Rs. 1,050 crores going for current outlays, that is, administrative charges and social over-heads. The private sector's share of the investments will be Rs. 4,000 crores. The investment in the Third Plan will be roughly the same as the total investment during the First and the Second Plans. The investments (public and private sectors included) will be as follows—Rs. 1,475 crores on agriculture, minor irrigation and community development ; Rs. 640 crores on major and medium irrigation ; Rs. 975 crores in power ; Rs. 435 crores on village and small industries ; Rs. 2,500 crores on major industries and minerals ; Rs. 1,650 crores on transport and communications ; Rs. 1,725 crores on social services and Rs. 800 crores on stocks and inventories. The following projects will receive priorities—Projects already started in the Second Plan will have the first place, followed by new projects for which foreign exchange is already assured.

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However overall emphasis will be on projects which will (1) increase food and agricultural output (2) make machines and components and (3) aid our export drive. Importance is also given to training of technical personnel.

Resources of the Plan—The Central and State Governments will have to raise Rs. 7,250 crores for investment and current outlays. Of this sum Rs. 1,650 crores will come from additional taxation, Rs. 350 crores from revenue balances at the existing tax levels, Rs. 850 crores by way of loans from the public, Rs. 550 crores from small savings and Rs. 570 crores from providend funds, etc. The Plan also envisages a contribution from railways of Rs. 150 crores and surpluses from other public enterprises to the extent of Rs. 440 crores. Furthermore, Rs. 2,200 crores is expected to come as external assistance. Deficit financing will amount to Rs. 550 crores. The private sector will raise its share of 4,000 crores.

Targets—So far as *food grains* are concerned, a 30 to 40 per cent increase is aimed at. In addition, considerable increases in the output of oil-seeds, sugarcane, cotton, jute, coconut, arecanut, cashewnut, pepper, cardamom, lac, tobacco, tea, coffee, rubber, etc., are expected. As for *irrigation*, an additional 13 million acres from large and medium projects and about 14 million acres from minor irrigation projects are expected. After making allowance for depreciation, etc., the net irrigated area is expected to increase from 70 million acres (1961) to about 90 million acres in 1966. In *Electricity*, installed capacity of 11.8 million kw is aimed at by 1966 compared to 5.8 million kw in 1961. Energy generated is expected to be 42,250 million kwh in 1966 as compared to 20,700 kwh by the end of the Second Plan. A nuclear energy plant with an installed capacity of 300,000 kw. is also planned. The target of *Coal* is 97 million tons as against output of 53 million tons in 1960-61. The *Education* allotment is Rs. 500 crores. This includes 370 crores for general education and Rs. 130 crores for technical education as against Rs. 213 crores and Rs. 60 crores respectively in the Second Plan. Of the general education, allotment of Rs. 370 crores, Primary, Secondary and University Education will get Rs. 180 crores, Rs. 90 crores and Rs. 75 crores respectively, with Rs. 25 crores going for social education. The aims are : 50.4 million pupils in primary schools and 14.4 million pupils in secondary and other schools. One of the aims of the university education will be to increase the proportion of science students. The technical education is expected to provide 51,000 engineering degree-holders and 76,000 diploma-holders. The total outlay for *Health* is Rs. 300 crores compared to Rs. 225 crores in the Second Plan. The distribution is as follows—water supply and sanitation Rs. 80 crores, hospital and dispensaries Rs. 50 crores, control of communicable diseases Rs. 92 crores, education and training Rs. 38 crores, indigenous medicine Rs. 8 crores and family planning Rs. 25 crores. The physical targets are : hospitals and dispensaries 14,600, beds 103,000, registered doctors 103,000, nurses 52,500, midwives 70,000. *Co-operatives*—the creation of a large and active co-operative sector is one of the aims of the Plan particularly in agriculture, medium and

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small industry, trade and distribution. A target of 2.5 lakh Service Co-operatives with a membership of 40 million, covering 55 per cent of India's rural population, is envisaged. Co-operatives are expected to provide Rs. 400 crores in short-term credit, Rs. 160 crores in medium credit and Rs. 115 crores in long-term credit.

Taxes—To carry out this Third Plan, Rs. 1,650 crores have to be raised in new taxes. The present average taxation is only 8.5 per cent of the national income. This has to be raised to 11 per cent.

Exports—Exports in 1959-60 brought in Rs. 650 crores. The Third Plan aims at a gradual increase of Rs. 690 crores. The total export earnings during Third Plan has been put at Rs. 3,450 crores. The Plan lays great stress on export drive.

Allocations—So far as the priority of the Third Plan is concerned, the main heads of allocation will be as follows—Agriculture, Rural Development and Minor Irrigation Rs. 1,475 crores ; Irrigation and Power Rs. 1,615 crores ; Industry and Minerals Rs. 2,935 crores ; Transport and Communications Rs. 1,650 crores ; Social Services Rs. 1,725 crores ; Inventories Rs. 300 crores.

PATTERN OF OUTLAY IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

The following table sets out the distribution of outlay in the public sector by major developmental heads as expected to materialize in the second Plan and as envisaged in the third Plan.

		Outlay		*Percentage*	
		2nd Plan	3rd Plan	2nd Plan	3rd Plan
		Rs. Crore		*Rs. Crore*	
1.	Agriculture & minor irrigation	320	625	6.9	8.6
2.	Community Development & co-operation ..	210	410	4.6	5.5
3.	Major & medium irrigation	450	650	9.8	9.0
4.	Power	410	925	8.9	12.8
5.	Village & small industries	180	250	3.9	3.4
6.	Industry & minerals ..	880	1,500	19.1	20.7
7.	Transport & communications	1,290	1,450	28.1	20.0
8.	Social services ..	860	1,250	18.7	17.2
9.	Inventories	...	200	...	2.8

In the second Plan, the share of agriculture, community development and irrigation in the public sector outlay was about 21 per cent. In the third Plan this is expected to increase to 23 per cent. The share of social services in the public sector outlay remains at about the same percentage as in the second Plan. A new item provided for in the third Plan is that of inventories.

SCHEME OF FINANCING PUBLIC SECTOR

The budgetary resources tht can be raised by the Central and State Governments through taxation, borrowings and other receipts

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and the surpluses of public enterprises available for investment are estimated at Rs. 2,850 crores. A further sum of Rs. 1,650 is to be raised through additional taxation. To these might be added Rs. 2,200 crores of resources representing rupee receipts corresponding to external assistance. In the third Plan, the external assistance is estimated at Rs. 2,200 crore as against Rs. 982 crore in the second Plan.The estimated deficit financing is placed at Rs. 550 crore as against Rs. 1,175 crore in the second Plan. The aggregate resources on this basis for the third Plan work out at Rs. 7,250 crores.

THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN AT A GLANCE

	Public Sector			Private Sector	
	Plan outlay	*Current investment*	*Investment*	*Investment*	*Total investment*
Agriculture, minor irrigation & Community Development	1,025	350	675	800	1,475
Major & medium irrigation	650	10	640	—	640
Power	925	—	925	50	975
Village & small industries	250	90	160	275	435
Industry & Minerals	1,500	—	1,500	1,000	2,500
Transport & Communications	1,450	—	1,450	200	1,650
Social Services	1,250	600	650	1,075	1,725
Inventories	200	—	200	600	800
Total	7,250	1,050	6,200	4,000	10,200

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT— The programme seeks to change the social and economic life and outlook of the rural people, raise farm production and income and create from stagnant backward villages a vital, progressive rural community. It is a programme of aided self-help to be planned and implemented by the villagers themselves, the Government offering only technical guidance and financial assistance. Its objectives are to develop self-reliance in the individual and initiative in the village community. Community thinking and collective action are encouraged through people's institutions like the *panchayats*, co-operative societies, etc. The project was launched on Oct. 2, 1952 in 55 selected projects, each covering an area of about 500 square

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miles with about 300 villages and a population of about 2 lakhs. Agriculture receives the highest priority in the programme, it being the mainstay of about 75 p.c. of the rural population. Other activities are communications, health and sanitation improvements, education, small-scale and village industries, etc.

The programme is implemented through units of blocks, each comprising generally 100 villages and area of 150 sq. miles and a population between 60 and 70 thousand. In 1959 it was decided by the Government that the responsibility, power and resources for planning and execution of development programme should be delegated to the people's institutions. In pursuance of this decision, *Panchayat Raj* was established in Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh with net work of Zila Parishad, Block Panchayats and district Panchayats.

THE PROGRESS OF THE SCHEME—The Community Development Programme has been in operation for over seven years and covers about 3,60,000 villages with a population of little over 179 million. The coverage works out to 61 per cent of the total rural population. The number of blocks so far allotted is 2,708, excluding 403 pre-extension blocks allotted during 1959.

THE ADMINISTRATION—The Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation is responsible for overall control of the programme. The basic policy matters are referred to the Central Committee, consisting of the members of the Planning Commission, the Ministers for Food and Agriculture and Community Development under the Chairmanship of the Prime Minister. Implementation of programmes is the responsibility of State Governments. Each State has a single authority known as "State Development Committee" consisting of the Chief Minister as the Chairman, the Ministers for Development Departments as members and the Development Commissioner as Secretary. The Development Commissioner co-ordinates all the activities of the development departments. The Collector is the Chairman of the District Planning or Development Committee. At the block level, there is Block Development Officer who is assisted by a team of experts in agriculture, co-operation, animal husbandry, cottage industry, etc. There is also Village Level Worker with multi-purpose functions in charge of about 10 villages.

PANCHAYAT RAJ—The basic features of the scheme are : (a) the passing of full responsibility to democratic bodies for planning and development (b) maximum decentralisation of powers to the level of the village *panchayat* and (c) setting up of a statutory body at the block-level to be the basic territorial unit for planning and development, now enough to the people for them to participate in its works and contribute to its success.

The structure is based on a three-tier system. The *Zilla Parisad* at the district level, will be mainly a planning and co-ordinating body, while the Block *Samiti* will be both a planning and executive body. Its role in respect of *Gram Panchayats*, will be mainly that of co-ordination. The *Panchayat* elected by the entire adult population of the village, will be in charge of development works in the village.

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An organic link between Block and District levels is being secured by the Presidents of the Block *Samitis* being members of the *Zila Parisad*. A similar link between the Block and the *Panchayat* level has been secured in certain States while in other States there is no direct election to the Block Level.

Panchayat Raj—Village *Panchayats* form the base of a superstructure at higher levels and because conditions differ from State to State, the Centre did not at first consider it advisable to give either a time limit or a rigid pattern of the growth of panchayats in uniform pattern. There was at first a difference of opinion whether there should be two-tier system or three-tier system for development in all the States. There has been now the general acceptance of a three-tier system by all the States. The *Zilla Parishad* will be mainly a planning and co-ordinating body while *Block Samiti* will be both a planning and executive body. *Gram Panchayats* will be mainly meant for co-ordination. Rajasthan has introduced *Panchayati Raj* with three-tier system, namely, village, the block and the district over the whole State areas on 1st. October, 1959. Andhra introduced a similar system on November, 1959. Madras, Mysore, Assam and Orissa have passed Acts which will establish three-tier system during 1960-61. In all States execution of local work programme in the blocks has been entrusted to *Panchayats* and wherever *Panchayat Samitis* have been formed, the control of Community Development Programme has been fully transferred to them.

FINANCE—Resources for the programme are drawn both from the people and from the Government. For each block area, development schemes are conditioned by a qualifying scale of voluntary contribution from people in cash or kind or labour when State assistance is offered for execution of such projects ; expenses are shared by the Central and the State Governments equally in respect of recurring items, and in proportion of 3 : 1 in the case of non-recurring items. For productive works like irrigation, reclamation of land, etc., funds are advanced by the Central Government to State Governments in the shape of loans. The Central Government also bear half of the expenditure of all personnel employed by the States in blocks. Expenditure incurred during the First Plan period was Rs. 52.4 crores against an allotment of Rs. 96.5 crores. The spill-over of Rs. 44.1 crores has been carried over to the Second Plan period, the allotment for which is Rs. 200 crores.

EXTERNAL ASSISTANCE—From the Government of U.S.A. under T. C. M. Operational Agreement, the programme received Rs. 24 million dollars for import of equipment. Assistance from the Ford Foundation was also received for this programme.

TRAINING—*Central Institute for Study and Research* in Community Development, Mussorie was established in 1958 for providing facilities for study in Community Development and allied subjects to M.P'S and M.L.A'S, top level administrators and technical personnel from various States. A *Trainers' Training Institute* was set up at Rajpur, Dehra Dun in Feberuary 1959 for imparting training in

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teaching techniques, uses of audio-visual aid, group discussions, etc., to teaching staff in the Orientation Training Centres, Social Organisers Training Centres and Extention Training Centres. *Orientation Training Centres* now provide for orientation training for all the block level functionaries such as officers, organisers for proper understanding, job training, refresher training centres. The training of Men S. E. O's and women S. E. O's (Mukhya Sevikas) started on 9th March, 1959 in separate training centres. Other training programmes are—village school teachers, gram sevaks, gram sevikas, health personnels.

INDIA'S FOREIGN AFFAIRS

The Organisation—The Ministry of External Affairs is responsible for the conduct of India's relations with foreign countries. The Ministry is also responsible for the country's representation in the United Nations and advises other Ministeries and State Governments when the latter have dealing with foreign governments or institutions. In the domestic sphere, it is responsible for the administration of the N.E.F.A. and Naga Hills and Tuensang Area and for matters of policy relating to former French possesions in India. The administration of Indian Emigration Act of 1952, the Reciprocity Act of 1943, the Port Haj Committee Act of 1932, the Indian Merchant Shipping Act so far as it relates to pilgrim ships, the Indian Pilgrim Shipping Rules of 1933, the Protection of Pilgrims Act of 1887 (Bombay) and Protection of the Mahomedan Pilgrims Act of 1896 (Bengal) is also the special responsibility of the Ministry of External Affairs.

Indian Foreign Service—Like I.A.S. and I.P.S., Indian Foreign Service has been constituted. At present the permanent strength of the Indian Foreign Service is 216. In addition, there are 10 supernumerary posts and 58 temporary posts in various grades. Apart from a 10 p.c. reservation for promotion of officers of grade I of I.F.S. 'B' and of the External Publicity Division, recruitment is made exclusively from the annual open competitive examination held by the Union Public Service Commission.

Missions Abroad—There are 44 Embassies, 10 High Commissions, 10 Legations, 10 Commissions, 2 Trade Commissions, 5 Consulates-Generals, 8 Consulates, 4 Vice-Consulates, 3 Special Missions and 3 Agencies. During 1959-60 separate Embassies were opened in Rumania and Ghana and the status of the Consulates of India at Muscat and Berlin was raised to that of Consulates-General.

Areas under the Ministry—(1) North East Frontier Agency in Assam (2) Naga Hills-Tuensang Area.

States in Special Treaty relations with India—(1) Bhutan (2) Sikkim.

Foreign Enclaves in India—(1) Goa, (2) Pondicherry—The treaty of cession of French Establishments of Pondicherry, Karikal,

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Yenam and Mahe signed at New Delhi on 28th May 1956 has not yet been ratified by the French Government.

India's Neighbours—(1) Afghanistan (2) Burma (3) Ceylon (4) China (5) Nepal (6) Pakistan.

External Publicity Division—The External Publicity Division of the Ministry of External Affairs is now responsible for maintaining liaison with all correspondents on all matters related to foreign affairs.

Expenditure—The expenditure of the Ministry falls under five demands, viz., (1) Tribal Area (2) Naga Hills-Tuensang Area (3) External Affairs (4) State of Pondicherry and (5) Miscellaneous. According to the revised estimates, expenditure of the Ministry of External Affairs during 1959-60 is expected to be Rs. 2,504.76 lakhs. The average expenditure per Mission excluding High Commission in London is Rs. 5.38 lakhs.

INDIAN MISSIONS ABROAD

(At the beginning of January, 1959)

Embassies
Afghanistan
Argentina
Belgium
Brazil
Burma
Cambodia
Chile
China
Czechoslovakia
Denmark
Ethiopia
France
Germany
Greece
Indonesia
Iran
Iraq
Ireland
Italy
Japan
Laos
Mexico
Mongolia
Morocco
Nepal
Netherlands
Norway
Philippines
Poland
Rumania
Saudi Arabia
Spain
Sudan
Sweden
Switzerland
Thailand
Turkey
United Arab Rep.
U. S. A.
U.S.S.R.
Yugoslavia

High Commissions
Australia
Canada
Ceylon
Ghana
Malaya
New Zealand
Pakistan
United Kingdom

Legations
Albania
Austria
Bulgaria
Cuba
Finland
Hungary
Jordan
Lebanon
Libya
Luxemburg
Vatican

Special Missions
Bhutan
Sikkim
United Nations

Commissions
Aden
Br. East Africa
Br. West Indies & Br. Guiana
Central African Federation
Fiji
Hong Kong
Nigeria
Singapore
Uganda
Mauritius

Consulate-General
Belgian Congo
Copenhagen
Damascus
Geneva
Hamburg
Helsinki
Lhasa
Madagascar
New York
Ruanda Urundi
Saigon
San Francisco
Shanghai

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Surinam (Dutch Guiana)
Vietnam (North)

Consulates
Basra
Berlin
Khorramshahr
Kobe
Mandalay
Medan
Muscat
Sourabaya

Vice-Consulates
Antwerp
Jalalabad
Kandahar
Zahidan

Agencies
Gartok
Gyantse
Yatung

INDIAN INFORMATION UNITS ABROAD

Acra
Adis Ababa
Ankara
Baghdad
Bangkok
Beirut
Belgrade
Berne
Bonn
Brussels
Buenos Aires
Cairo
Colombo
Dacca
Damascus
Djakarta
Fiji
Gangtok
The Hague
Hongkong
Jeddah
Kabul
Karachi
Kathmandu
Khartoum
London
Manila
Moscow
New York (U. N.)
New York (C. G.)
Ottawa
Paris
Peking
Phnom Penh
Port Louis
Prague
Rangoon
Rio de Janerio
Rome
San Francisco
Salisbury
Kuala Lumpur
Stockholm
Sydney
Tehran
Tokyo
Trinidad
Washington

FOREIGN MISSIONS IN INDIA

Embassies
Afghanistan
Argentina
Belgium
Brazil
Burma
Cambodia
Chile
China
Czechoslovakia
Denmark
Ethiopia
France
Germany (Federal Republic of)
Greece
Indonesia
Iran
Iraq
Italy
Japan
Laos
Mexico
Mongolia
Morocco
Nepal
Netherlands
Norway
Philippines
Poland
Rumania
Saudi Arabia
Spain
Sudan
Sweden
Switzerland
Thailand
Turkey
U.S.S.R.
United Arab Rep.
U.S.A.
Yugoslavia

High Commissions
Australia
Canada
Ceylon
Ghana
Federation of Malaya
New Zealand
Pakistan
United Kingdom

Legations
Albania
Austria
Bulgaria
Cuba
Finland
Holy See
Hungary
Lebanon

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INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS OF WHICH INDIA IS A MEMBER

United Nations

1. *General Assembly.*
2. *Committees and Commissions* of the General Assembly :—
   (a) Advisory Committee on the peaceful uses of Atomic Energy.
   (b) Committee to consider the question of convening a general conference to review the UN Charter.
   (c) Committee on Information from non-self-governing territories.
   (d) Scientific Committee on the effects of Atomic Radiation.
   (e) Peace Observation Commission.
   (f) Disarmament Commission.
   (g) Interim Committee of the General Assembly.
   (h) General Committee.
   (i) Committee on Contributions.
   (j) International Law Commission.
   (k) United Nations Administractive Tribunal.
3. *Functional Commissions of the Economic and Social Council* :—
   (a) Human Rights Commission.
   (b) Commission on International Commodity Trade (C.I.C.T.).
   (c) Narcotic Drugs Commission.
4. *Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East* (ECAFE).
5. *Other Subsidiary Bodies of the Economic and Social Council.*
   (a) United Nations International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF).
   (b) Technical Assistance Committee.
6. *Trusteeship Council.*
7. *International Atomic Energy Agency.*
8. *Specialised Agencies* :—
   (a) Food and Agriculture Organization (F.A.O.).
   (b) General Agreement on Trade & Tariffs (G.A.T.T.).
   (c) International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (I.B.R.D.).
   (d) International Monetary Fund (I.M.F.).
   (e) International Civil Aviation Organization (I.C.A.O.).
   (f) International Labour Organization (I.L.O.).
   (g) International Tele-communications Union (I.T.U.).
   (h) Universal Postal Union (U.P.U.).
   (i) United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO).
   (j) World Health Organization (W.H.O.).
   (k) World Meteorological Organization (W.M.O.).
9. Asian Broadcasting Conference.
10. Asian-African Legal Consultative Committee, New Delhi.
11. Commonwealth Agricultural Bureau (UK).
12. Commonwealth Air Transport Council.
13. Commonwealth Advisory Aeronautical Research Committee.
14. Commonwealth Broadcasting Conference.
15. International Association for Bridges and Structural Engineering, Zurich.
16. International Commission on Irrigation and Drainage, New Delhi.
17. International Commission on Large Dams, Paris.

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International Organizations (*Conc.d.*)

18. International Committee of the Red Cross, Geneva.
19. International Conference of Social Works, Paris.
20. International Cotton Advisory Committee, Washington.
21. International Council of Archives, Paris.
22. International Council of Building Research Studies and Documentation, Paris.
23. International Council of Scientific Unions, London.
24. International Criminal Police Commission, Paris.
25. International Customs Tariffs Bureau, Brussels.
26. International Dairy Federation, Brussels.
27. International Electro-Technical Commission, Geneva.
28. International Federation for Documentation, The Hague.
29. International Federation for Housing and Town Planning, The Hague.
30. International Federation for University Women, London.
31. International Hide and Allied Trades Improvement Society, Survey, U.P.
32. International Hydrographic Bureau, Monte Carlo.
33. International Hospitals Federation, London.
34. International Institute for Administrative Sciences, Brussels.
35. International Institute for the Unification of Private Law, Rome.
36. International Organization for Standardisation, Geneva.
37. International Tea Committee, London.
38. International Railway Congress Association, Brussels.
39. International Union of Biological Sciences, Paris.
40. International Union of Crystallography, Cambridge.
41. International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics, Paris.
42. International Union of Geography, New York.
43. International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry, Paris.
44. International Union of Pure and Applied Physics, Paris.
45. International Union of Theoretical and Applied Mechanics, Delft.
46. Permanent International Association of Road Congress, Brussels.
47. Union International Centre de Cancer, Paris.
48. World Veterans' Federation, Paris.
49 World Poultry Science Association, New York.

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INDIAN PARLIAMENT

INDIAN PARLIAMENT—It consists of two Houses. The Upper House is known as *Rajya Sabha* (Council of States) and the Lower House known as *Lok Sabha* (House of the People). These two Houses and the President together constitute the Parliament of India.

Rajya Sabha—The strength of the Rajya Sabha is fixed at a maximum of 250 members, of them 12 are nominated by the President for their "Special knowledge or practical experience in such matters as literature, science, art and social service". The remaining seats are allocated to the various States roughly in proportion to their population.

Each State Assembly chooses its representatives according to a system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote. In territories where there are no Assemblies, the members are chosen by the Electoral Colleges. Unlike the Lok Sabha, the Rajya Sabha is not dissolved as a body, but one-third of its members retire every two years and their place is taken by new members.

Lok Sabha—This consists of not more than 500 members directly elected on the basis of adult franchise, excluding the 20 seats alloted to Union Territories and two members of the Anglo-Indian Communities to be nominated by the President from territorial constituencies in the States (the representatives of Jammu & Kashmir being appointed by the President on the recommendation of the Legislature of the State and not more than 20 members to represent the Union Territories chosen in a manner as Parliament by law provides. The number of seats in each State is so alloted that the ratio between the number of seats and the population of the State is, as far as practicable, the same in all States. The tenure of the Lok Sabha is five years.

ELECTION COMMISSION—An independent organisation known as *Election Commission* has been set up under the provisions of the Constitution for conducting elections in India. It is responsible for the preparation of electoral rolls and for the conduct of elections to Parliament, to every State Legislature and to the offices of President and Vice-President.

CHAIRMAN AND SPEAKER—The Rajya Sabha is presided over by a Chairman, the office being held *ex officio* by the Vice-President of India. The Deputy Chairman is elected from among the members. The Lok Sabha has an elected Speaker. Both the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker are elected from amongst the members of the Lok Sabha.

DEPARTMENT OF PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS—This Department was set up in 1949. The functions and organisation are as follows—

1. Fixing the dates of the commencement and duration of the sessions of the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha.

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(2) Planning and co-ordination of legislative and other official business for Parliament.

(3) Fixation of orders of priority of Government business in both Houses of Parliament.

(4) Advice to Ministers on Parliamentary matters.

(5) Implementation of assurances, undertakings and promises given on the floor of the Parliament on behalf of the Government.

(6) Determination of Government's attitude to private member's bills and resolutions.

(7) Constitution and working of Informal Consultative Committees of members of Parliament for different Ministers, Departments and Zonal Railways.

(8) Laws relating to salaries and allowances of members of Parliament, the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Rajya Sabha and the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the Lok Sabha.

(9) Co-ordination of action to be taken by Ministries on the recommendations of general application made by Parliamentary Committees.

POWERS & PRIVILEGES—(1) *Legislative Powers*—The Parliament has exclusive authority to make laws on the subjects mentioned in the *Union List*. The laws enacted by the Parliament relating to the items in the *Concurrent List* shall prevail over the corresponding legislation by the States. The residuary power is thus vested in the Centre. Even in regard to the *State List*, over which the States have exclusive jurisdiction, Parliament can assume authority if Rajya Sabha recommends by two-thirds majority that such legislation is in the national interest, or two or more States mutually agree that Parliament may do so or it is necessary to implement treaties or international conventions.

(2) *Executive and Judicial Powers*—Parliament controls the Executive through votes of censure and adjournment motion. It can refuse to pass law required by the Government. It can refuse to give sanction to an Ordinance issued by the President. As for judicial power, no court in India has any jurisdiction over it. The Parliament may order the arrest of any person and try him for the contempt of Parliament or for breach of its privileges.

Privileges—(1) *Freedom from arrest.* This is of a civil nature and operates during sessions of Parliament and 14 days before and after. A member of the Parliament cannot be arrested inside Parliament, even if he is wanted in a criminal case. (2) *Power to summon persons.* The Houses and their Committees have the right to summon any person to give evidence, information or to answer a charge. Disobedience is punishable by the House. (3) *Power to punish for breach of privilege.*—The Parliament can try and punish any person for contempt or breach of parliamentary privileges, whether committed inside or outside. (4) *Right to regulate affairs.* (5) *Right to exclude strangers.*

PARLIAMENTARY COMMITTEES—In order to give adequate knowledge of the working of the Government in its various Departments and to provide opportunities of discussions of broad policies of

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the Government on informal matter, informal Parliamentary Committees have been formed by the respective Houses themselves. The Committees fall under three groups—those of a general nature, concerned mainly with the organisation and powers of the Houses; those assisting the Houses in their legislative functions and Committees with financial functions. In the first category fall the Committees on Rules, Privileges, Absence of members and the Business Advisory Committees, etc. The Legislative Committees include Select Committees of either Houses and Joint Select Committees of the two Houses set up *ad hoc* for the consideration of important bills. Under the third category fall the Public Accounts Committee and the Estimates Committee. The first Committee is composed of the members of both the Houses and second committee consists of only Lok Sabha members.

The functions of some of the Committees are given below—

Public Accounts Committee—examines the accounts showing the appropriation of sums granted by the House for expenditure by the Government of India, the annual Finance Accounts of the Government of India and such other accounts laid before Parliament as the Committee may deem fit.

Estimates Committee—reports on what economies, improvements in organisation, efficiency and administrative reform consistant with the policy underlying the estimates may be effected. It also examines whether the money provided in the estimates is well laid out and suggests the form in which estimates shall be presented to Parliament.

Committee on Government Assurances—Its function is to scrutinise the assurances given by Ministers on the floor of the House and to report extent to which such assurances have been implemented.

Informal Consultative Committees—There are Informal Consultative Committees for different ministries which provide a forum for informal discussions between members of the Parliament and ministers and senior officials of the Government on matters of policy and the working of administrative departments.

PARLIAMENTARY SECRETARIAT—There are two separate Parliamentary Secretariats—one for Lok Sabha and another for Rajya Sabha Secretariat. The Secretariats have several branches dealing separately with each function of the Houses, such as Questions Branch, Legislative Branch, Private members Business Branch, Editorial Branch, Research & Reference Branch, etc. The Secretariat maintains a research and reference service.

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OUTSIDE AIDS

The role of external assistance in the implementation of the Five-Year Plan has been stated as follows :—"the role of external assistance in relation to the Plan will be to supplement the real resources of the country with commodities for which additional demands will be generated in the process of development but the domestic supplies of which are limited. External assistance would help to avoid dislocations and to maintain a certain measure of stability in the economy."

External assistance has been received by India since 1951. The guiding principle in the acceptance of this assistance has been that it is only intended to supplement the resources of the country in the implementation of the Five-Year Plans and is to be primarily marginal in character. India has received substantial technical and financial assistance from different sources.

Seventy-six per cent of the foreign aid authorisations upto December 1960 consisted of loan, according to an analysis of the Official Statistics of External Assistance.

Thirteen countries and other institutions authorised aid to India upto December 1960. The aid consisted of Rs. 2,091.57 crores in loans and Rs. 636.21 crores in grants.

In addition, suppliers' credit facilities were received from France, Japan and Switzerland. There were also gift shipments from private voluntary agencies in U.S.A. and technical assistance from Netherlands and Finland.

According to data avaliable upto December 1960, the authorisations included Rs. 369,57 crores, specifically earmarked for the Third Five-Year Plan.

The authorisations country-wise in loans and grants are : (Figures in lakhs of rupees) : U.S.A. : 97,464 and 50,568, USSR : 38,341 and 115, United Kingdom : 16,266 and 47, Canadia :1,571 and 9,057, Australia grant : 1,227, New Zeland grant : 343, West Germany : 15,058 and 209, Japan loans : 2,761, Czechoslovakia loans : 2,310, Rumania loans : 523, Yugoslavia loans : 1,905, Norway grants : 219, Poland loans : 1,430.

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development authorised loans of Rs. 21,944 lahs for public sector and Rs. 9,584 lakhs for private sector.

The U. N. Special Fund grants totalled Rs. 416 lakhs.

The Ford Foundation grants totalled Rs. 1,420 lakhs.

The Rockefeller Foundation gave upto September 30 last grants totalling Rs. 5.4 crores.

1. COLOMBO PLAN

The Colombo Plan was organised at Colombo in 1950 as a Commonwealth venture "for a cooperative economic development of South and South East Asia". The region with 660,000,000 people is economically backward, some politically unstable and therefore potentially vulnerable to various ailments. The basic concept of the Colombo Plan is co-operation in economic development and the raising

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of living standards and the consultative technique among the countries of the Colombo Plan. The consultative committee of the Plan which met at Jogjakarta in Nov. 1956 decided to extend the plan for another five years from 1961. The contributors to the Plan, called "donors", are Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zeland, United States and Japan. The recipients are India, Malaya, Thiland, Philippines, Pakistan, Burma, Ceylon, Laos, Nepal, South Vietnam, Indonesia and Borneo.

Apart from external financial assistance, the *Technical Co-operation Scheme* is one of the Plan's most important features. Training facilities for nearly 7,000 people were made available upto June 1958; the subjects studied included engineering, industry, transport and communications, food, agriculture, health and education. In addition, the services of more than 1,000 technical experts have been provided. The total cost of technical assistance programme, 1951 to 1958, was £10 million.

2. U.S. GOVERNMENT ASSISTANCE TO INDIA

U.S. economic assistance to India consists of both grants and loans. The total commitments of the United States under various agreements with the Government of India now stand at $3678.7 million (Rs. 1,751 crores).

GRANTS are gifts. They do not involve any repayment. For instance, the rupee equivalent of $757.2 million or 32.9% of the sale proceeds of agricultural commodities supplied to India under Public Law 480, Title I, will be grants made to the Indian Government for economic development. So is a sum of $ 322.2 million provided under the Indo-American Technical Cooperation Programme. Grants total $ 1,079.4 million.

LOANS involve repayment. The Wheat Loan of 1951 and loans made by the Export-Import Bank—totalling $359.2 million—are to be repaid in dollars. Loans made by the Development Loan Fund ($423.3 million), under the Technical Co-operation Programme $156.1 million), and over the next four years, from the sale proceeds of agricultural commodities supplied under PL-480 ($1,087.3 million) —totalling $1,666.7 million—can be repaid in either dollars or rupees at the option of the Indian Government. Repayment in rupees does not involve the utilization of India's foreign exchange earnings or the export of goods from India. It will be noted that 81% of U.S. loans to India are repaybale in rupees.

Under Title I of PL-480, the United States has entered into agreements with India for the supply of large quantities of wheat, rice, coarse grains, cotton, dried milk powder and tobacco. The total value of the commodities covered by these agreements amounts to $2,302.2 million. Of this, the rupee equivalent, of $457.7 million is reserved for U.S. Government use; $757.2 million is to be granted to the Indian Government for economic development and the balance ($1,087.3 million) is to be loaned to the Indian Government for the same purpose. Thus 80% of the value of agricultural commodities supplied under Title I of PL-480 will be utilised in financing irriga-

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tion dams, power projects, the expansion of educational and research facilities, the malaria eradication programme, and similar development projects in this country.

Title II of Public Law 480 enables the U.S. President to furnish emergency assistance to foreign countries in meeting famine or other urgent or extraordinary relief requirements. Under this title, India has received agricultural commodities worth $4.9 million. The U.S. International Co-operation Administration sent supplies valued at $5.5 million to meet a food emergency. Thus India received famine relief grants totalling $10.4 million.

Under the Title III of Public Law 480, $105.3 million worth of dried milk, wheat, rice, corn, cotton seed oil and other such commodities have been distributed in India through voluntary agencies.

Assistance Granted Since September 26, 1960.

On October 14 the U.S. Development Loan Fund announced approval of a $30 million loan to meet the foreign exchange requirements of a large fertilizer factory to be established at Trombay. The rupee costs of the Trombay plant will be met by a loan of Rs. 13.3 crores from the sale proceeds of agricultural commodities supplied to India under PL-480. Thus, the United States will finance the entire cost of the plant.

On October 19 the U.S. Development Loan Fund gave India a $25 million loan for the importation of capital equipment to increase the productive capacity of small and medium-sized private industrial enterprises.

On October 20 another $25 million loan was given by the U.S. Development Loan Fund for the importation of steel and steel products. Both of these loans will provide immediate help toward meeting India's foreign exchange needs during the closing months of the Second Five Year-Plan.

The above tabulation takes into account a reduction of $10 million mutually agreed upon between the Governments of India and of the United States in the first railway loan (signed on June 23, 1958) granted by the Development Loan Fund. The amount of the loan has been reduced from $40 million to $30 million.

(U.S. Aid from the Inception of the Aid Programme to India in June 1951 through October 20, 1960)

	DOLLARS (Million)	RUPEE equivalent (Crores)
Aid under Indo-American Technical Co-operation Programme	478.3	227.6
Public Law 480, Title I	2,302.2	1,095.9
Famine relief grants to Indian Government	10.4	4.9

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Agricultural commodities distributed through voluntary agencies (Public Law 480, Title III)	105.3	50.1
Development Loan Fund	423.3	201.5
Export-Import Bank	169.5	80.7
Wheat Loan of 1951	189.7	90.3
Total ..	3,678.7	1,751.0

	DOLLARS (Million)	RUPEE equivalent (Crores)
Breakdown		
Loans repayable in dollars ..	359.2	171.0
Loans repayable in rupees or dollars ..	1,666.7	793.3
Grants to Indian Government for economic development (not repayable) ..	1,079.4	513.8
Amounts under PL-480, Title I, reserved for U.S. Government use (including funds for loans under the Colley amendment) ..	457.7	217.9
Famine relief grants to Indian Government	10.4	4.9
Agricultural commodities distributed through voluntary agencies (PL-480, Title III)	105.3	50.1
Total ..	3,678.7	1,751.0

FIVE-YEAR PLANS AID FROM ABROAD

External assistance to India from the beginning of the First Five-Year Plan to September 1960 amounts to Rs. 1,658.07 crores, according to official figures.

Of these, Rs. 1,315.94 crores were in the form of loans and Rs. 342.13 crores in grants.

Of the loans, Rs. 126.42 crores was utilised during the First Plan period and Rs. 557.97 during the Second Plan period, upto 1959-60.

Of the loans, a total of Rs. 444.33 crores is repayable in rupees to U.S. loanees—three U.S. Development Assistance Loans and nineteen U.S. Development Loan Fund.

Loans repayable in foreign currencies total Rs. 871.61 crores. These include Rs. 281.94 crores from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (Rs. 186.11 crores are for projects in the public sector and Rs. 96.83 crores for projects in the private sector) ; Rs. 167.64 crores from the USA ; Rs. 144.03 crores, including the Bhilai credit, Rs. 500 crores rouble credit, etc., from the USSR ; Rs. 115.99 crores from the United Kingdom ; Rs. 107.77 crores from West Germany ; Rs. 15.72 crores from Canada ; Rs. 27.62 crores from Japan and Rs. 10.90 crores from Switzerland.

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EXTERNAL ASSISTANCE : Authorised and utilized (Rs. Crores)

	Aid authorised in the 1st Plan	*Aid utilised at the end of 1st Plan*	*Undisbursed at the 1st Plan*	*Aid authorised from 1956-1960*	*Total available during 2nd Plan*	*Estimated utilisation from April 1956 to March 1960*	*Aid undisbursed at March 1960*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Loans and credits ..							
A. Repayable in Foreign Currencies							
1. I. B. R. D. Loans ..	57.7	38.8	23.9	224.2	248.1	186.0	62.1
2. Loans from Foreign Countries							
(i) U.S.A. ..	90.3	90.3	—	76.7	76.7	16.4	60.3
(ii) Canada ..	—	—	—	15.7	15.7	15.7	—
(iii) U.K. ..	—	—	—	102.6	102.6	82.4	20.2
(iv) West Germany	—	—	—	93.8	93.8	72.7	21.1
(v) Japan ..	—	—	—	27.6	27.6	4.0	23.6
(vi) U.S.S.R. ..	63.1	—	63.1	80.9	144.0	63.8	80.2
B. Repayable in rupees U.S.A. ..	27.4	2.3	25.1	117.9	143.0	82.0	61.0
Total (A & B) ..	238.5	126.4	112.1	739.4	851.5	523.0	328.5
II. Grants							
(i) U.S.A. ..	91.2	44.3	46.9	41.1	88.6	70.4	17.6
(ii) Colombo Plan Countries ..	45.5	25.3	20.2	49.5	69.7	53.1	16.6
(iii) Norway ..	0.7	0.7	—	1.0	1.0	1.0	—
(iv) P.L. 480 Titles II & III ..	26.1	26.1	—	29.6	29.6	29.6	—
Total II ..	163.5	96.4	67.1	121.2	188.3	154.1	34.2
III. P.L. Assistance 480 & 665 ..	16.9	5.1	11.8	476.1	487.9	357.6	130.3
Grand Total (I, II & III)	418.9	227.9	191.0	1,336.7	1,527.7	1,034.7	493.0

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LOANS FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES
(Outstanding at the end of—)

(*In Crores of Rupees*)

	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
Dollar loans ..	159.86	262.31	374.68
USSR loans ..	15.30	40.89	55.67
West German loans ..	14.00	35.71	80.64
Loans from other foreign countries ..	—	1.00	8.75

USEFUL LAWS

COPYRIGHT LAW IN INDIA

The New Copyright Act 14 of 1957 now governs the copyright law of India. Under the Act a Copyright Office has been established in Delhi under the control of a Registrar of Copyright. The principal function of the Copyright Office is to maintain a Register of Copyrights in which may be entered, at the option of the authors, the names or titles of works, the names and addresses of authors and owners of copyright. There is also a Copyright Board under a Chairman and three other members to determine the reasonableness of the rates of fees, charges or royalties, etc. and to consider applications for general licences for public performances of works and to assess compensation payable in certain circumstances.

The general term of the copyright is the life-time of the author and a period of 50 years after his death.

In certain circumstances, the Copyright Board has been authorised to grant licences to produce and publish translations, if no translation has been published by or on behalf of the author of the work within seven years of the first publication of the work.

SPECIAL MARRIAGE ACT XLIII OF 1954

A marriage between any two persons may be solemnized under this Act, if at the time of marriage the following conditions are fulfilled—(1) neither party has spouse living (2) neither party is an idiot or a lunatic (3) male has completed the age of 21 years and the female the age of 18 years (4) parties are not within the degrees of prohibited relationship (5) when the marriage is solemnized outside the territories to which this extends, both parties are (a) citizens of India (b) domiciled in the said territories.

A marriage under the Act may be solemnized in any form which the parties may choose to adopt, but it shall not be complete and binding on each parties unless each party says to the other in the presence of Marriage Registrar and the three witnesses and in any language understood by the married parties—I (A), take thee (B) to be my lawful wife (or husband).

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The marriage solemnized under this Act of any member of an undivided family who professes the Hindu, Buddhist, Sikh or Jain religion shall be deemed to effect his severence from such family. Succession to the property of any person whose marriage is solemnized under this Act and to the property of the issue of such marriage shall be regulated by the provision of the Indian Succession Act.

HINDU MARRIAGE ACT XXV OF 1955

A marriage between any two Hindus may be solemnized if following conditions are fulfilled—(1) neither party has a spouse living at the time of marriage (2) neither party is an idiot or a lunatic at the time of marriage (3) the bridegroom has completed the age of 18 years and the bride, the age of fifteen years at the time of marriage (4) the parties are not within the degrees of prohibited relationship, unless the custom or usage governing each of them permits a marriage between the two (5) parties are not *Sapindas* of each other unless the custom or usage governing each of them permits of a marriage between the two (6) where the bride has not completed the age of 18 years, the consent of her guardian in marriage, if any, has been obtained for the marriage. For the purpose of facilitating the proof of Hindu marriages, the State Government may make rules providing that parties to any such marriage may have the particulars relating to their marriage entered in such manner and condition as may be prescribed. Any marriage solemnized before or after the commencement of the Act may be dissolved by divorce on a petition presented by either party on various grounds. No petition of divorce is to be presented within three years of marriage.

PROMISSORY NOTE

The promissory note must be in writing (2) It must contain an undertaking to pay (3) The promise to pay must be unconditional (4) The maker must sign the promissory note (5) The maker of note must be a certain person (6) The sum payable must be certain (7) The sum payable should be in money and money only (8) Payee must be certain. The period of limitation is three years.

DEBTOR AND CREDITOR

A creditor is under no obligation to demand payment. Debtor must find him out and pay him. The same with landlord and tenant.

LIGHT AND AIR

There is no right to light and air against a neighbour and the latter may wall up all access to light and air unless easement has been acquired by 20 years' user as of right.

MAJORITY

Age of majority is 18 years and when a minor's estate is under the Court of Wards, it is 21 years. A contract by minor is null and void.

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RECEIPTS

Receipts for any money or other property when the amount or value exceeds Rs. 20 must be stamped with 10 nP. stamp.

WILL

No special form is necessary, but there should be a clear and definite statement as to the testator's intentions. Intent should be expressed in plain language by avoidance of legal terms, if possible. The words should not be scratched with an instrument or erased. Alteration may be made by striking through the words but they must be initialled. The signature or mark of the testator must be in the Will and it must be attested by at least two witnesses. Registration is not compulsory. Every Will is revoked by the marriage (except Will by Hindu). If it is wished to change the disposition, it is better to make a new Will revoking the old one or to add a codicil.

PAYMENT OF RENT

With regard to payment of rent, it is general rule that debtor must find his creditor and pay him. A landlord is under no obligation to collect the rent.

INCOME TAX

The tax under the Income Tax Act is leviable annually for each financial year commencing on the 1st April and ending on the 31st March following. The tax is levied at the rates sanctioned by the Parliament in the Annual Finance Act. The tax is leviable on income earned by all persons during previous year. 'Persons' for the purpose of income tax are classified according to their status into Individual, Hindu undivided Family, Firm, Company, Local Authority and other Association of Persons. The term Hindu undivided family includes *Dayabhaga* families. The 'previous year' is either the previous financial year or a period of 12 months upto which the assessee has made up his accounts ending within the previous financial year. Thus the Income-tax year is always ahead of the previous year by a year or so. The word 'income' is not adequately defined in the Indian Income Tax Act. It is money or money's worth periodically received from a definite source. It does not include gifts, windfall gains and receipts of a casual or non-recurring nature such as prize money in a Crossword Competition or a Derby lottery, money won by occassional bets in the race course etc. In computing the income of a person for assessment purpose, certain invisible items of income are taken into consideration, i.e., value of rent free quarters, etc. Certain classes of income are exempt from Income Tax assessment.

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Dr. S. Radhakrishnan.

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Minister of Railways—Jagjivan Ram.

Minister of Labour and Employment & Planning—Gulzarilal Nanda.

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Minister of Revenue and Civil Expenditure—B. Gopala Reddi.

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Deputy Minister of Labour—Abid Ali.

Deputy Minister of Works, Housing & Supply—Anil Kumar Chanda.

Deputy Minister of Agriculture—M. V. Krishnappa.

Deputy Minister of Irrigation and Power—Jai Sukh Lal Hathi.

Deputy Minister of Commerce and Industry—Satish Chandra.

Deputy Minister of Planning—Shyam Nandan Mishra.

Deputy Minister of Finance—Bali Ram Bhagat.

Deputy Minister of Scientific Research & Cultural Affairs—Dr. Mono Mohan Das.

Deputy Minister of Railways—Shah Nawaz Khan.

Deputy Minister of External Affairs—Sm. Lakshmi N. Menon.

Deputy Minister of Home Affairs—Sm. Violet Alva.

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Deputy Minister of Railways—S. V. Ramaswamy.
Deputy Minister of Civil Aviation—Ahmed Mohiuddin.
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Surgeon to the President—Lieut. Col. S. S. Maitra.
Comptroller, President's House-hold—Lieut. Col. Haranath Singh.
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Solicitor—B. T. Merchant.
Addl. Legal Advisers—R. M. Mehta (Bombay), P. K. Bose and H. C. Daga.
Deputy Legal Advisers—R. R. Desai, D. B. Kulkarni, P. G. Gokhale (Bombay), K. S. Pandalai, R. C. Desai, V. Ramaswami Iyer, S. Balakrishnan, G. M. Divekar (Bombay), G. Venkatasubramaniam and S. S. Kar.
Government Advocate—R. H. Dhebar.

(Legislative Department)

Special Secretary—G. R. Rajagopaul.
Secretary—R. C. S. Sarkar.
Joint Secretary and Draftsman—S. K. Hiranandani and S. P. Sen Verma.
Officer on Special Duty—G. R. Bal.
Additional Draftsmen—N. Swaminathan and V. N. Bhatia.
Deputy Draftsmen—K. G. Viswanathan, K. K. Sundaram and P. L. Gupta.
Deputy Secretary—K. G. Avadhani.
Director, Translation of Law—Balkrishna.
Officer on Special Duty—Surjeet Singh Mamak.

LAW COMMISSION

Chairman, Law Commission—T. L. Venkatarama Aiyar.
Member, Law Commission—P. Satyanarayana Rao, L. S. Misra and G. R. Rajagopaul.
Joint Secretary—D. Basu.
Deputy Draftsman—P. M. Bakshi.

HINDU RELIGIOUS ENDOWMENTS COMMISSION

Officer on Special Duty—E. Venkateswaran.

DEPARTMENT OF PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS

Secretary—Kailash Chandra.

MINISTRY OF RAILWAYS

(Railway Board)

Chairman—Karnail Singh.
Financial Commissioner for Railways—S. Jagannathan.
Members—Kirpal Singh (Transportation), D. C. Baijal (Staff) and E. W. Isaacs (Engineering).
Additional Members—R. B. Lal (Commercial), B. Mazumdar (Staff), D. R. Kohli (Works), C. T. Venugopal (Finance) and K. C. Lall (Mechanical).
Directors—S. P. Sinha (Land Adviser), Qurban Singh (Railway Stores), S. Chakravarti (Mechanical Engineering Production), G. P. Bhalla (Efficiency Bureau), S. K. Guha (Statistics and Economic Adviser), F. B. Khambata (Medical and Health), R. Krishnaswamy (Mechanical Engineer), Jagjit Singh (Traffic Transportation), L. N. Mathur (Electrical Engineering), L. C. Mohindra (Signalling and Telecommunication), Lochan Singh (Adviser, Telecommunication), G. G. Takle (Timber Adviser), O. S. Murthy (Planning), M. M. Chudasama (Inspector General Railway Protection Force), M. A. Qadeer (Establishment), D. P. Mathur (Finance), D. B. Singh (Training).

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Labour and Welfare Adviser—D. G. Jadhav.
Secretary—R. E. De Sa.
Joint Directors—B. Bhattacharyya (Finance) (A), H. K. Bhalla (Finance Budget), H. M. Chatterjee, (Railway Stores), R. N. Channabasappa (Traffic General), P. R. Pasalkar (Rly. Planning), S. S. Jagota (Mech. Eng. Production), M. P. Satheye (Traffic Rates), M. R. Reddy (Civil Engineering., P. R. K. Menon (Finance Expd.), K. T. Mirchandani (Pay Commission), M. Mukhopadhyay (Public Relations), Usman Ali Khan (Security DIG/RPF), M. Sunder Raj (Finance, Establishment), M. V. Rao (Finance, P. P.), V. P. Sawhney (Traffic Trains), T. N. Kuriakose (Finance, Store & Foreign Exchange), D. B. Vohra (Establishment), J. N. Roy (Works), M. Sundaresan (Stores) (Code), K. S. Ramaswamy (Mech. Eng. Works), M. M. Dam (Engg. Running), B. P. Hira, Mechanical Eng. (Metric), V. N. Agharkar (Steel Procurement), P. N. Khanna (Mech. Eng.), (Fuel).
Officer on Special Duty (Labour)—D. G. Jadhav.

GENERAL MANAGERS, RAILWAYS

Central Railway—D. R. Khanna.
Eastern Railway—M. M. Khan.
Northern Railway—B. B. Mathur.
North-Eastern Railway—Harbans Singh.
North-East Frontier Rly.—Ratan Lal.
Southern Railway—A. C. Mukherjee.
South-Eastern Railway—S. N. Wadhwa.
Western Railway—S. S. Ramasabhan.

MINISTRY OF REHABILITATION

Secretary—Dharma Vira.
Joint Secretary—Prem Krishen.
Joint Secretary—S. W. Shiveshwarkar.
Deputy Secretaries—G. P. Bagchi, (at Calcutta), K. N. Channa, P. V. Gopalan, (at Calcutta), Savitri Prasada, and V. P. Sud, (at Calcutta).

MINISTRY OF STEEL, MINES & FUEL

Department of Iron & Steel

Secretary—S. Bhoothalingam.
Deputy Secretaries—B. C. Mathur, K. S. Raghupathi and G. Ramanathan.

Department of Mines & Fuel

Secretary—S. S. Khera.
Joint Secretaries—N. N. Kashyap and N. S. Mani.
Officer on Special Duty and *ex-officio* Joint Secretary—K. K. Sahni.
Coal Mining Adviser—A. B. Guha.
Deputy Secretaries—S. D. Bhambri, Chhedi Lal, Mahmood Butt, A. Mobin, S. K. Mukherjee, B. N. Raman, K. K. Sharma, D. D. Gupta and Balwant Singh.

MINISTRY OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

Department of Communications and Civil Aviation

Secretary—M. M. Philip.
Joint Secretary—D. C. Das.
Deputy Secretaries—T. R. Mantan, H. C. Sharma and K. K. Unni.
Chairman, Air Transport Council—S. Lal.
Chief Government Inspector of Railways—D. C. Desai.
Adviser, Wireless, Planning & Co-ordination, Organisation—N. V. Gadadhar.

Department of Transport (Transport Wing)

Secretary—G. Venkateswara Ayyar.
Joint Secretary—Nakul Sen.

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Joint Secretary and Director-General of Shipping—Nagendra Singh.
Chairman, Inter-State Transport Communications—T. G. N. Ayyar.
Development Adviser and *ex-officio* Joint Secretary—H. P. Mathrani
Deputy Financial Adviser (Transport)—R. G. Abbhi.
Deputy Secretaries—S. K. Ghosh, K. Narayanan, K. Ranganathan, D. D. Suri and S. K. Venkatachalam.
P. S. to Minister—S. Ramchandra Iyer.

Department of Transport (Road Wing)

Consulting Engineer (Road Development) & *ex-officio* Jt. Secretary—H. P. Sinha.
Additional Consulting Engineer (Road)—Goverdhan Lall.
Addl. Consulting Engineer (Bridges)—S. L. Bazaz.
Deputy Consulting Engineer (Roads)—D. G. Bhagat.
Deputy Materials and Plant Officer—R. S. Bhalla.
Senior Planning Officer—Hardayal.
Deputy Bridge Officer—N. S. Surya.
Deputy Bridge Officer—M. P. Nagarsheth.
Deputy Standards Officer—J. M. Trehan.
Planning Officers—R. L. Gursahani, N. D. Mirchandani and B. P. Patel.

Tourist Department

Director-General, Tourist Department, and *ex-officio* Joint Secretary—S. N. Chib.
Deputy Director-General, Tourist Department—G. R. Kadapa.

MINISTRY OF WORKS, HOUSING & SUPPLY

Secretary—T. Sivasankar.
Joint Secretaries—A. S. Naik and A. D. Pandit.
Officer on Special Duty—K. S. Krishna Swami.
Housing Commissioner—N. P. Dube.
Deputy Secretaries—K. G. S. Pisharody, R. Ananda Krishna, S. Chaudhuri, D. P. Karnik, B.E., (Civil AMIE), B. D. Kumar, P. K. Sen and S. P. Saksena.

LOK SABHA SECRETARIAT

Speaker—M. A. Ayyangar.
Deputy Speaker—Hukam Singh.
Secretary—M. N. Kaul.
Joint Secretary—S. L. Shakdhar.
Deputy Secretaries—N. N. Mallya, A. S. Rikhy, A. K. Ray, P. K. Patnaik, V. Subramanian, H. N. Trivedi and A. L. Rai.

RAJYA SABHA SECRETARIAT

Chairman—Dr. S. Radhakrishnan.
Deputy Chairman—S. V. Krishnamoorthy Rao.
Secretary—S. N. Mukherjee.
Joint Secretary—B. N. Banerjee.
Deputy Secretaries—S. S. Bhalerao and P. N. Krishna Mani.

ELECTION COMMISSION

Chief Election Commissioner—K. V. K. Sundaram.
Deputy Election Commissioner—P. S. Subramanian.
Secretary—S. C. Roy.

PLANNING COMMISSION

Chairman—Jawaharlal Nehru (Prime Minister of India).
Minister (Planning)—Gulzari Lal Nanda
Members—Morarji Desai, Minister of Finance. V. K. Krishna Menon, Minister of Defence (International Trade Deve-

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lopment). Shriman Narayan, J. N. Singh, A. N. Khosla (Education), and C. M. Trivedi (Natural Resources).
Chairman, Typt. Policy Committee—K. C. Neogy.
Deputy Ministers—S. N. Misra and L. N. Misra.
Secretary—Vishnu Sahay.
Additional Secretary—Tarlok Singh.
Advisers (Programme Administration)—S. V. Ramamurti, Nawab Singh and M. S. Sivaraman.
Adviser (Planning)—E. P. Moon.
Adviser (Economic)—J. J. Anjaria.
Adviser (Irrigation & Power)—Balwant Singh Nag.
Adviser (Social Services)—M. R. Kothandaraman.
Member Secretary, Research Programme Committee—D. K. Malhotra.
Joint Secretaries—V. K. Rao and S. R. Sen.
Chief (Land Reforms)—Ameer Raza.
Chief (Labour and Employment)—B. N. Datar.
Chief (Programme Administration)—K. Mitra.
Chief (Perspective Planning and Private Secretary to Chairman)—Pitamber Pant.
Chief (Industry)—K. Vyasulu.
Chief (Health)—S. Seshagiri Rau.
Chairman, Programme Evaluation Board—D. Ghosh.
Deputy Secretaries—N. S. Gidwani, J. M. Kitchlu, R. Venkateswaran and K. S. Chandrasekharan

SUPREME COURT OF INDIA

The Hon'ble the Chief Justice of India—Bhuvaneshwar Prasad Sinha.
The Hon'ble Judges—Justice Syed Jafar Imam, Justice S. K. Das, Justice J. L. Kapur, Justice P. B. Gajendragadkar, Justice Amal Kumar Sarkar, Justice K. Subba Rao, Justice K. N. Wanchoo, Justice M. Hidayatullah, Justice K. C. Das Gupta, Justice J. C. Shah, Justice Raghubar Dayal, Justice N. Rajagopala Ayyangar, Justice J. R. Mudholkar.
Officers :—
Registrar—Arindam Dutt.
Deputy Registrar—S. N. Sharma.
Deputy Registrar—Guru Dutta.

SPEAKERS, STATE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLIES

Andhra Pradesh—A. Kaleswara Rao.
Assam—Mahendra Mohan Chaudhury.
Bihar—V. P. Varma.
Maharashtra—S. L. Silam.
Kashmir—Azadullah Mir.
Kerala—K. M. Seethi Sahib.
Madhya Pradesh—K. L. Dube.
Madras—U. Krishna Rao.
Mysore—S. R. Kanthi.
Orissa—Nilkantha Das.
Punjab—Gurdial Singh Dhillon.
Rajasthan—Ram Niwas Mirdha.
Uttar Pradesh—A. G. Khar.
West Bengal—Bankim Chandra Kar.

PRESIDENTS, LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS

Andhra Pradesh—M. Hanumantha Rao.
Bihar—Brajraj Krishna.
Maharashtra—Bhogilal D. Lala.
Kashmir—Shiv Narayan Fotedar.
Madras—P. V. Charian.
Mysore—K. V. Narasappa.
Punjab—Kapoor Singh.
Uttar Pradesh—R. V. Dhulekar.
West Bengal—Dr. S. K. Chatterjee.

CHAIRMEN, TERRITORIAL COUNCILS

Himachal Pradesh—Karam Singh.
Manipur—Sibo Larho.
Tripura—Sachindralal Singh.

PRESIDENT, REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, PONDICHERRY

President—A. S. Kangeyan.

RULERS OF TERRITORIES

Lt. Governor.
Himachal Pradesh—Bajrang Bahadur Singh.

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Chief Commissioners.

Delhi—Bhagwan Sahay.
Tripura—N. M. Patnaik.
Manipur—J. M. Raina.
Andaman & Nicobar Islands—M. V. Rajwade.
Pondichary—A. S. Bam.

Administrators.

Laccadive, Minicoy & Amindivi Islands—C. K. Balakrishna Nair.

STATE GOVERNORS

Andhra Pradesh—Bhim Sen Sachar.
Assam— S. M. Srinagesh.
Bihar—Dr. Zakir Hussain.
Gujrat—Mehdi Nawaz Jung.
Jammu & Kashmir—Yuvaraj Karan Singh (*Sadar-i-Riyasat*).
Kerala—V. V. Giri.
Madhya Pradesh—H. V. Pataskar.
Madras—Bishnuram Medhi.
Maharashtra—Sri Prakasa.
Mysore—H. H. Jayachamaraja Wadiyar.
Orissa—Y. N. Sukthankar.
Punjab—N. V. Gadgil.
Rajasthan—Gurumukh Nihal Singh.
Uttar Pradesh—Rama Krishna Rao.
West Bengal—Sm. Padmaja Naidu.

STATE MINISTRIES

ANDHRA PRADESH

GOVERNOR—Bhim Sen Sachar.

Chief Minister in-charge of General Admn. Deptt., *i.e.*, Political, Legislature, Services, Public Service Commission, Law & Order, Elections and Census, Accommodation Control, High Court Judges, District Judges (including District Courts and Additional District Courts), Anti-Corruption Tribunals and All India Services. Large scale industries, printing & stationery, Commerce & Housing, Large scale Industrial & Co-operative, Mines, Municipal Administration—D. Sanjivayya.

Deputy Chief Minister in-charge of Revenue, Registration and Stamps, Customs, Evacuee Property, Atiyat, Jagir Administration & Jagirdars, Debt Settlement Board, and Land Reforms—K. V. Ranga Reddy.

Minister-in-Charge of Buildings, Highways, Highways Irrigation & Power, Public Gardens, City Water Works & Public Works Department, Workshops, Relief and Rehabilitation—A. Satyanarayana Raju.

Minister in-charge of Education and Transport—S. B. P. Pattabhi Rama Rao.

Minister in-charge of Planning (including Bureau of Economics & Statistics), Panchayats and Zilla Parishads, Information & Publicity and Tourism—P. Ranga Reddi.

Minister in-charge of Religious and Charitable Endowments (excluding Muslim Waqfs Board & Waqfs) and co-operation—K. Chandramouli.

Minister in-charge of Finance, Commercial Taxes, Law, Courts, Law Officers and Prisons—K. Brahmananda Reddi.

Minister in-charge of Home, *i.e.*, Police and Prohibition, Arms Act, Cinematograph and Passports—M. Narasinga Rao.

Minister in-charge of Forests, Fisheries and Animal Husbandry—M. Pallam Raju.

Minister in-charge of Health and Medical.—P. V. G. Raju.

Minister in-charge of Social Welfare, Safdar Jung Estate Committee and Muslims' Waqfs Board and Muslim Waqfs—Sm. Masuma Begum.

Minister in-charge of Agriculture, Food & Food Production, Marketing, Rural Indebtedness and Debt Relief and Labour—N. Ramachandra Reddy.

Minister in-charge of Small Scale Industries including Small Scale Industrial Co-operatives, Cottage Industries and Excise—Konda Lakshman Bapuji.

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ASSAM

GOVERNOR—General S. M. Shrinagesh.

MINISTERS

Chief Minister. Appointments, Political, Home, General Administration including Sectt. Administration, Relief and Rehabilitation, Minority Commission, Co-ordination of all other Deptts. including Development and matters not specifically allotted to any other Minister, Road and Building Wing under the P.W.D., Education, Jails—Bimala Prasad Chaliha.

Revenue, Forest and Excise—Hareswar Das.

Planning and Development, Statistics, Labour, Town and Country Planning, Industries and Power (Electricity), Trade and Commerce, Cottage Industries—Kamakhya Prasad Tripathy.

Finance, Community Projects and N.E.S. Blocks, Local Self Government, Law, Judicial & Legislative, Panchayat—F. A. Ahmed.

Tribal Areas and Welfare Publicity and Information and Transport—Williamson Sangma.

Medical and Public Health, Printing, Stationery, Registration & Stamps—Rupnath Brahma.

Agriculture, Veterinary and Livestock, Co-operative Departments, Pisciculture and Parliamentary Affairs, Supply including Consumer Goods & Textile, Flood Control and Irrigation under P.W.D.—Moinul Haque Choudhury.

Khadi and Village Industries Board, Social Welfare & Jail, Sericulture and Weaving—Mahendra Nath Hazarika.

DEPUTY MINISTERS

Public Works Department (Roads and Buildings) and Local Self Government —Girindra Nath Gogoi.

Co-operatives, Labour and Political Sufferers—Biswadev Sarma.

Education and Revenue—Radhika Ram Das.

Agriculture, Cottage Industries and Village Industries—Larshing Khyriem.

PARLIAMENTARY SECRETARIES.

Chief Parliamentary Secretary, Community Projects & Transport—A. Thanglura.

T.A.D., Printing and Stationery and Publicity—Pu Lalmawia.

Forest, T.A.D. and Planning and Development and Social Welfare—Lolit Kumar Doley.

Relief & Rehabilitation—Sai Sai Terang.

BIHAR

GOVERNOR—Dr. Zakir Hussain.

CHIEF MINISTER and Minister incharge of Appointments, Political (excluding Information and Transport) Finance, Industries (including Mines and Mineral Resources)—D. N. Sinha.

MINISTERS

Public Works, Public Health, Engineering and Housing and Local Self Government—Maqbool Ahmad.

Education—Kumar Ganga Nand Singh.

Revenue (excluding Minor Irrigation, Mines and Mineral Resources) Gram Panchayat and Labour—Binoda Nand Jha.

Co-operative, Veterinary, Animal Husbandry and Law—Jagat Narain Lal.

Jails, Relief and Rehabilitation and Transport—Shah Muhammad Ozair Munimi.

Health, Supply and Food and Agriculture (including Medium and Minor Irrigation)—Bir Chand Patel.

Excise, Forest & Welfare—Bhola Paswan.

Irrigation (Major) Power and Information—Dip Narain Sinha.

DEPUTY MINISTERS

Food—A. A. Muhammad Noor.

General Administration, Political, Irrigation and Power—Kedar Pandey.

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Industries, Information—Laliteshwar Prasad Sahi.
Gram Panchayat, Animal Husbandry, Veterinary—Haridaya Narain Choudhury.
Finance—Ambika Singh.
Public Works Department, Local Self Government Dept.—Sahdeo Mahto.
Revenue, Religious Endowments and Trust—Radha Govind Prasad.
Health—Sm. Jyotirmayee Devi.
Agriculture—Chandrika Ram.
Education & Excise—Krishna Kant Sinha.
Housing P.H.E. and Co-operative—Deo Narain Yadav.
Jail and Community Project—Daroga Prasad Roy.
Welfare & Forest—Sm. Rajeshwari Saroj Das.

GUJARAT

GOVERNOR—Mehdi Nawaz Jung.
Chief Minister—Dr. J. N. Mehta.
MINISTERS—
Lands and Home Departments—R. U. Parikh.
Public Works and Rural Department—R. M. Adani.
Health and Industries Departments—M. C. Shah.
Education, Agriculture and Law—H. K. Desai.
DEPUTY MINISTERS—
Roads, Buildings and Ports Deptt.—P. B. Thakkar.
Rural Development Department—J. S. Shah.
Industries & Road Transport Deptt.—C. M. Patel.
Agriculture & Forests Dept.—B. K. Patel.
Finance Department—M. M. Odedra.
Lands Department—A. A. Jasdanwala.
Prohibition & Social Welfare Deptt.—Sm. Urmilaben P. Bhatt.
Health and Jails Department—Sm. K. M. Patel.
PARLIAMENT SECRETARY
(Secretary to the Chief Minister)—Shantilal S. Shah.

KERALA

GOVERNOR—V. V. Giri.
MINISTERS
Chief Minister—Pattom A. Thanu Pillai.
Deputy Chief Minister—R. Sankar.
Minister for Home Affairs—P. T. Chacko.
Minister for Industries—K. A. Damodara Menon.
Minister for Education—P. P. Ummer Koya.
Minister for Transport & Labour—K. T. Achuthan.
Minister for Food & Agriculture—E. P. Punnose.
Minister for Public Health and Electricity—V. K. Velappan.
Minister for Public Works—D. Damodaran Potti.
Minister for Law and Revenue—K. Chandrasekharan.
Minister for Harijan Uplift and Registration—K. Kunhambu.

MAHARASHTRA

GOVERNOR—Sri Prakasa.
MINISTERS
Chief Minister—Y. B. Chavan.
Minister for Buildings and Communication—M. S. Kannamwar.
Minister for Law, Judiciary and Labour—Shantilal H. Shah.
Minister for Revenue—Vasantrao P. Naik.
Minister for Rural Development and Forests—B. G. Gadhe.
Minister for Education—D. S. Desai.
Minister for Civil Supplies, Housing, Presses, Waqfs and Fisheries, Printing—S. G. Kazi.
Minister for Finance—S. K. Wankhede.
Minister for Co-operation—T. S. Bharde.
Minister for Agriculture—P. K. Savant.
Minister for Prohibition and Social Welfare—Dr. T. N. Naravane.

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Minister for Irrigation & Power—S. B. Chavan.
Minister for Public Health, Small Savings & Tourism—H. J. H. Taleyarkhan.
Minister for Urban Development—D. Z. Palspagar.

DEPUTY MINISTERS

Deputy Minister for Prohibition—Dr. Bhaskar R. Patel.
Deputy Minister for Education—Sm. Nirmala Raje Bhosale.
Deputy Minister for Buildings & Communications—Davisingh V. Chauhan.
Deputy Minister for Sarvodaya, Forest Labourers Societies and Khar land Development—S. R. Patil.
Deputy Minister for Planning, Industries and Labour—G. D. Patil.
Deputy Minister for Co-operation—Dr. N. N. Kailas.
Deputy Minister for Revenue—M. D. Choudhuri.
Deputy Minister for Home—Y. J. Mohite.
Deputy Minister for Public Health—Madangopal J. Agrawal.
Deputy Minister for Irrigation & Power—N. V. Deshmukh.
Deputy Minister for Rural Development—Narendra M. Tidke.
Deputy Minister for Agriculture—Madhusudan A. Vairale.

MADHYA PRADESH

GOVERNOR—H. V. Pataskar.
Chief Minister—Dr. Kailash Nath Katju.

MINISTERS

Forest—Shambhu Nath Shukla.
Education—Dr. Shanker Dayal Sharma.
Finance—Mishri Lal Gongwal.
Revenue and Industries—Bhagwant Rao Mandloi.
Public Works—Shankar Lal Tewari.
Labour—V. V. Dravid.
Tribal Welfare—Raja Naresh Chandra Singh.
Food—A. Q. Siddiqui.
Social Welfare—Ganesh Ram Anant.
Public Health—Rani Padmavati Devi.

DEPUTY MINISTERS

Home—Narsingh Rao Dixit.
Commerce & Industries—Kesho Lal Gomashta.
Food and Civil Supply—Sajjan Singh Vishnar.
Finance—Mathura Prasad Dube.
Revenue—Jagmohan Das.
Public Works—Dasrath Jain.
Labour—Shivbhanu Solanki.
Agriculture—Shyam Sunder Narain Mushran.
Planning & Development—Sitaraman Jajoo.
Public Health—Govind Narain Singh.
Education—Vasant Rao Uike.

MADRAS

GOVERNOR—Bishnuram Medhi.

MINISTERS—

Public, Planning and Community Development (including Local Development Works, Women's Welfare, Community Projects and Rural Welfare)—K. Kamaraj, Chief Minister.
Home including Courts and Prisons and Prohibition, Food and Agriculture (including Khadi and Village Industries and Hindu Religious Endowments), Railways, Posts & Telegraphs and Civil Aviation, Police, Forests, Cinchona, Animal Husbandry, Veterinary, Home Minister—M. Bhaktavatsalam.
Finance, Education, Information and Law (including Legislature and Engineering Colleges), Elections in Public Department, Publicity, Politechnics with diploma course, Institute of Leather Techonology with diploma course, the Regional School of Printing and Technology with Diploma and certificate course, Orphan and Orphanages including civil orphan Asylum, Finance Minister—C. Subrahmaniam.
Revenue and Public Health, Medical, Legislation on Money lending (Rural Indebtedness), Legislation on Weights and Measures. Revenue Minister—M. A. Manickavelu.

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Industries, Labour and Co-operation (including Housing, Commercial Taxes and Nationalised Transport), Yarn, Textiles, Mines and Minerals, Iron and Steel Control Prices and Supply of Goods Act, Companies, Newsprint Control, *ex*-Servicemen and Legislation on Chits, (Companies), Industries Minister—R. Venkataraman.

Public Works excluding Electricity, Harijan Welfare, Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes, Works Minister—P. Kakkan.

Electricity, Transport (including Registration, Accommodation Control, Stationery and Printing and Government Press), Electricity Minister—V. Ramaiah.

Local Administration and Fisheries, Local Administration Minister—Shrimati Lourdhammal Simon.

MYSORE

GOVERNOR—His Highness the Maharaja Shri Jayachamaraja Wadiyar Bahadur, G.C.S.I.

MINISTERS

Chief Minister—B. D. Jatti.

Minister for Education—Anna Rao Ganamukhi.

Minister for Public Works and Electricity—H. M. Channabasappa.

Minister for Revenue—Kadidal Manjappa.

Minister for Health—K. K. Hegde.

Minister for Co-operation—Mali Mariyappa.

Minister for Finance—T. Maryappa.

Minister for Forest and Transport, K. F. Patil.

Minister for Agriculture, Excise and Social Welfare—N. Rachiah.

Minister for Law, Labour and Local Government—T. Subramanya.

DEPUTY MINISTERS

Deputy Minister for Home—B. Basavalingappa.

Deputy Minister for Rural Industries —Sm. Leelavathi V. Magadi.

Deputy Minister for Planning and Development—H. C. Linga Reddy

Deputy Minister for Education—Sm. Grace Tucker.

Deputy Minister for Public Works—M. N. Naghnoor.

Deputy Minister for Finance—J. H. Shamsuddin.

ORISSA

GOVERNOR—Y. N. Sukthankar.

MINISTERS

Chief Minister, Political and General Services, Home and Education—Dr. Harekrishna Mahatab.

Finance, Industries, Mining and Geology and Services Planning (excluding matters relating to Rourkela Steel Plant)—Rajendra Narayan Singh Deo.

Development—Radhanath Rath.

Revenue, Excise and Political & Services —Satyapriya Mohanty.

Works (Appointment) Irrigation, Embankment and Drainage and Electricity —Sailendra Narayan Bhanj Deo.

Supply, Commerce—Nilamoni Routray.

Political and Services (Administrative Tribunals, Vigilance, River Valley Development & matters relating to Rourkela Steel Plant)—Udit Pratap Sekhar Deo.

Transport, Works (Roads and Buildings) & Transport Deptt.—Brundaban Nayak.

Health and Relief and Rehabilitation—Rama Prasad Mishra.

Political and Services (Community Development and N.E.S. and Grama Panchayats)—Laxmi Prasad Mishra.

Tribal and Rural Welfare and Labour—Rajballav Mishra.

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PUNJAB

GOVERNOR—N. V. Gadgil.

MINISTERS

Chief Minister, General Administration including Publicity, Elections, Integration, Anti-Corruption and Political Sufferers, Law and Order, Social Welfare, Scheduled Castes and Tribal Areas, Health and Medical—Sardar Pratap Singh Kairon.

Education, Printing and Stationery and Languages—Amar Nath Vidyalankar.

Revenue Relief and Rehabilitation—Giani Kartar Singh.

Consolidation, Transport and Sports, Irrigation & Power—Rao Birendra Singh Rao.

Finance, Excise and Taxation, Planning & Statistics and Cottage Industries—Dr. Gopi Chand Bhargava.

Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Fisheries, Forests and Game Preservation—Sardar Gian Singh Rarewala.

Industries, Civil Supplies, Local Bodies (excluding Cottage Industries, Panchayats) Jails, Justice and Legislative Department & Labour—Mohan Lal.

P.W.D. (Buildings and Roads) Capital Project, Public Health, Engineering and Housing—Suraj Mal.

Panchayats and Co-operative, and Community Development and intensive Agricultural District Programme—Sardar Gurbanta Singh.

DEPUTY MINISTERS.

Jails, Food & Supplies—Banarasi Dass.

Community Projects, Irrigation and Power—Dalbir Singh.

Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Fisheries and Law and Order—Harbans Lal.

Social Welfare and Health (Health and Medical)—Bibi (Dr.) Prakesh Kaur.

Development of Hilly Backward Areas, and Forests—Partap Singh.

Local Government, Scheduled Castes and Backward Classes, Welfare among Harijans—Yashwant Rai.

Public Works Department (Building and Roads) Capital Project, Public Health, Engineering & Housing—Niranjan Singh Talib.

Education, Printing and Stationery and Languages—Yash Pal.

RAJASTHAN

GOVERNOR—Gurmukh Nihal Singh.

MINISTERS

Chief Minister and Minister-in-charge of General Administration, Appointments, Planning and Development, Education Deptt. and Mines, Mineral Based Industries and Cabinet Secretariat—Mohanlal Sukhadia.

Home, Transport, Law and Legal Remembrancer's Office, Judicial and Transport—Ram Kishore Vyas.

Finance, Village Industries, Community Development and Panchayats—Haribhau Upadhyaya.

Revenue (Including Jagir Resumption), Devasthan Deptt. Famine Relief & Relief and Rehabilitation—Damodar Lal Vyas.

Medical and Public Health, Stationery and Printing, Government Presses and Legislative Assembly and Election and Labour—Badri Prasad Gupta.

Agriculture, Co-operation, Animal Husbandry and Food—Nathu Ram Mirdha.

Local Self Government (excluding Panchayat) and Forest—Sampat Ram.

Irrigation (except Rajasthan Canal and Bhakra), Ayurved—Bheeka Bhai.

Industries (except Mineral Based Industries) Civil Supplies, Social Welfare—Rikhab Chand Dhariwal.

Buildings & Roads and Power—Harish Chandra Bahadur.

Excise & Taxation, Bhakra and Rajasthan Canal Project—Ram Chandra Singh.

DEPUTY MINISTERS.

Education, Finance—Poonam Chand Visnoi.

Agriculture, Irrigation—Daulat Ram.

Planning (Co-ordination), Power, State Enterprises, Technical Education—Barkatullah Khan.

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UTTAR PRADESH

GOVERNOR—B. Ramakrishna Rao.

MINISTERS (Members of the Cabinet)

Chief Minister, General Administration, Planning & Industries & Labour, etc. —C. B. Gupta.

Judicial, Legislative, Revenue, Relief and Rehabilitation—Hukum Singh.

Police, Home, Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries—Charan Singh.

Education and Social Welfare—Acharya Jugal Kishore.

Finance, Sales Tax, Registration, Stamps and Court Fees—Har Govind Singh.

Commerce, Development, Labour, Cottage Industries—Sm. Sucheta Kripalini.

MINISTERS OF STATE (Not members of Cabinet)

Co-operation, Sports and Games—Mangla Prasad.

Transport, Political pensions and Muslims—Muzaffar Hasan.

Irrigation and Government Estates Office —Ram Murti.

Local Self-Government and Panchayats—Kailash Prakash.

Home (Jails, Protection, Aftercare) and Excise—Dr. Sita Ram.

Forests, Economic and Statistics—Algurai Shastri.

DEPUTY MINISTERS

Harijan, Charitable Endowments and Badrinath Temple—Dr. Jawaharlal Rohatagi.

Information & Industries—Rauf Jafri.

Power & Power Project—S. P. Sharma.

Social Welfare—Sm. Prakashwati Sud.

Ram Swarup Yadav.

Wasi Naqvi.

Dharam Singh.

Hony. Parliamentary Secretary—Kripa Shankar.

WEST BENGAL

GOVERNOR—Kumari Padmaja Naidu.

MINISTERS

CHIEF MINISTER and Minister incharge of Home Department except Police and Defence Branches, Departments of Finance, Development, Co-operation and Cottage and Small Scale Industries—Dr. Bidhan Chandra Roy.

MINISTERS

Commerce & Industries and Tribal Welfare Deptts.—Bhupati Majumdar.

Education Deptt.—Rai Harendra Nath Chaudhuri.

Irrigation and Waterways Deptt.—Ajoy Kumar Mukherji.

Excise Department—Shyama Prasad Barman.

Works and Buildings and Housing—Khagendra Nath Das Gupta.

Departments of Food, Relief and Supplies & Refugee Relief and Rehabilitation—Prafulla Chandra Sen.

Community Development and Extension Service, Animal Husbandry and Forest and Veterinary Services—Dr. Rafiuddin Ahmed.

Police and Defence Branches of Home Department—Kalipada Mookerjee.

Law and Local Self-Government and Panchayats and Department of Law—Iswar Das Jalan.

Land and Land Revenue Deptt.—Bimal Chandra Sinha.

Labour Deptt.—Abdus Sattar.

Agriculture and Food Production—Tarun Kanti Ghose.

MINISTERS OF STATE

Jails and Social Welfare Branches of the Home Department—Sm. Purabi Mukhopadhyay.

Department of Health—Anath Bandhu Roy.

DEPUTY MINISTERS

Transport Branch of Home Deptt.—Satish Chandra Ray Sinha.

Education Deptt. and .Local .Self-Govt. and Panchayats—Sourindra Mohan Misra.

Tribal Welfare—Tenzing Wangdi.

Refugee, Relief and Rehabilitation Department—Sm. Maya Banerjee.

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Animal Husbandry & Veterinary Services, Deptt. of Forests, Deptt. of Community Development & Extension Services—Smarajit Bandyopadhyay.
Relief and Supplies Branches of the Food, Relief and Supplies Departments —Rajani Kanta Pramanik.
Co-operation Deptt. and Cottage and Small Scale Industries Department—Chittaranjan Roy.
Health—Md. Ziaul Haque.
Police Branch of Home Department—Ardhendu Sekhar Naskar.
Labour Deptt.—Narbahadur Gurung.
Commerce and Industries Deptt.—Syed Kazem Ali Meerza.
Publicity Branch of Home Department & Chief Govt. Whip—Jagannath Kolay.
Food, Relief and Supplies Deptt.—Ashutosh Ghosh.
Food Branches Deptt. of Food, Relief & Supplies—Charu Chandra Mahanty.

JAMMU AND KASHMIR

Sadar-i-Riasat—Yuvraj Karan Singh.
Prime Minister—Bakhshi Ghulam Mohamad.
MINISTERS
Development—Chuni Lal Kotwal.
Industries & Commerce—S. L. Saraf.
Agriculture & Community Development —Shams-ud-Din.
Revenue & Law—D. N. Mahajan.
Health—G. M. Rajpori.
Education—Ghulam M. Sadiq.
Finance—Girdharilal Dogra.
Law & Judiciary—Syed Mir Qasim.
Planning & Statistics—Durga Prasad Dhar.
MINISTERS OF STATE
Excise and Octroi and Taxation—Amar Nath Sharma.
Social Welfare and Scheduled Castes and Backward Classes—Bhagat Chhaju Ram.
Ladakh Affairs—Kaushak Bakula.
Forest—Ghulam Nabi Wani Sogami.
Food & Transport—Abdul Gani Trali.
Education, Law and Order—Harbans Singh Azad.

DELHI

Chief Commissioner—Bhagwan Sahay.
SECRETARIES
Chief Secretary—A. D. Pande.
Secretary (Finance)—K. L. Rathee.
Secretary (Judicial)—P. D. Sharma.
Development Commissioner—K. P. Singh.
Deputy Commissioner—S. Banerji.

HIMACHAL PRADESH

Lieutenant Governor—Raja Bajrang Bahadur Singh of Bhadri.
Judicial Commissioner—C. B. Capoor.
DEPARTMENTS
Appointment, Secretariat Administration, General Administration, Revenue, Home, Transport, Publicity and Tourism, Also Financial Commissioner and Vigilance Officer, Organisation and Methods—B. N. Maheshwari, Chief Secretary.

MANIPUR

Chief Commissioner—J. M. Raina.
SECRETARIES, ETC.
Chief Secretary—C. S. Nayar.
Secretary (D)—Thangkhopao Kipgen.
Secretary, Law & Home—Harish Chandra Agarwala.
Secretary (M)—S. Gourahari Singh.
Secretary (Finance)—S. P. S. Sodhi.

TRIPURA

Chief Commissioner—N. M. Patnaik.
SECRETARIES, ETC.
Chief Secretary—Harbans Singh.
Secretary—R. K. Dev Varma.
Finance Secretary—P. C. Mukherjee
Secretary Rehabilitation—P. C. Mazumdar.
Secretary (Director of Education Working as Secretary)—S. K. Choudhury.

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ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS

Chief Commissioner—M. V. Rajwade.

LACCADIVE, MINICOY AND AMINDIVI ISLANDS

Administrator—C. K. Balakrishnan Nair.

PONDICHERRY

Chief Commissioner—A. S. Bam.

Councillors of Government

1. Public Works, Fisheries, Port and Electricity—V. Vengadasoubbareddiar.
2. Finance, Industries, & Labour—E. Goubert.
3. Local Administration, Transport & Public Instruction—C. E. Bharathan.
4. Revenue, Animal Husbandry and Information—Gouroussamy Pillai.
5. Agriculture, Rural Development and Harijan Welfare—P. Shammugham.
6. Medical, Public Health, and Co-operation—Momamed Ismail.

LOK SABHA

Speaker—M. Ananthasayanam Ayyengar.
Deputy Speaker—Sardar Hukam Singh.
Secretary—M. N. Kaul.

ANDHRA PRADESH—43

B. Rajagopala Rao (Srikakulam)
Dippala Suri Dora (Parvathipuram)
Biddika Satyanarayana (Parvathipuram *Reserved*)
Vijaya Anand, Maharaja Kumar (Visakhapatnam)
Missula Suryanarayanamurthi (Golugonda)
Kankipati V. Padalu (Golugonda *Reserved*)
D. S. Raju (Rajahmundry)
M. Thirumala Rao (Kakinada)
B. S. Murthy (Kakinada *Reserved*)
Uddaraju Ramam (Narasapur)
Sm. Mothey Vedakumari (Eluru)
D. Balarama Krishnaiah (Gudivada)
Sm. K. Achamamba (Vijayawada)
M. Venkatakrishna Rao (Masulipatnam)
N. G. Ranga (Tenali)
Kotha Raghuramaiah (Guntur)
R. Narappa Reddy (Ongole)
C. Bali Reddy (Markapur)
R. L. Reddy (Nellore)
B. Anjanappa (Nellore *Reserved*)
M. Ananthasayanam Ayyengar (Chittoor)
M. V. Gangadhara Siva (Chittoor *Reserved*)
T. N. Visawanatha Reddy (Rajampet)
V. Rami Reddy (Cuddapah)
T. Nagi Reddy (Anantapur)
K. V. Ramakrishna Reddy (Hindupur)
P. Venkatasubbaiah (Adoni)
S. Osman Ali Khan (Kurnool)
J. Rameshwar Rao (Mahbubnagar)
P. Ramaswami (Mabbubnagar *Reserved*)
Vinayak Rao K. Koratkar (Hyderabad)

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Ahmed Mohiuddin (Secunderabad)
Sm. Sangam Laxmi Bai (Vikarabad)
P. Hanumantha Rao (Medak)
H. C. Heda (Nizamabad)
K. Ashanna (Adilabad)
M. Sriranga Rao (Karimnagar)
M. R. Krishna (Karimnagar *Reserved*)
Sadath Ali Khan (Warangal)
Etikala Madhusudhan Rao (Mahbubabad).
T. B. Vittal Rao (Khammam)
D. Venkateswar Rao (Nalgonda)
Devenapalli Rajiah (Nalgonda *Reserved*)

ASSAM—13

Dwarikanath Tewari (Cachar)
Nibaran Chandra Laskar (Cachar *Reserved*)
Hoover Hynniewta (Autonomous districts, *Reserved*)
Amjad Ali (Dhubri)
Rani Manjula Devi (Goalpara)
Dharanidhar Basumatari (Goalpara *Reserved*)
Hem Barua (Gauhati)
B. Bhagavati (Darrang)
Liladhar Katoki (Nowgong)
Sm. Mafida Ahmed (Jorhat)
Prafulla Ch. Barooah (Sibsagar)
Jogendra N. Hazarika (Dibrugarh)

BIHAR—53

Bibhuti Mishra (Bagaha)
B. B. Varma (Champaran)
Bhola Rout (Champaran *Reserved*)
Dr. Syed Mahmud (Gopalganj)
Jhulan Sinha (Siwan)
Rajendra Singh (Chapra)
Mahendra N. Singh (Maharajganj)
Pt. Dwarka N. Tiwari (Kesaria)
Rajeshwar Patel (Hajipur)
Chandramani Lal Chaudhury (Hajipur *Reserved*)
Ashoke Mehta (Muzaffarpur)
J. B. Kripalani (Sitamarhi)
Digvijaya Narain Singh (Pupri)
Shyamnandan Mishra (Jainagar)
Anirudha Singh (Madhubani)
Satyanarain Sinha (Samastipur)
Shreenarain Das (Darbhanga)
Rameshwar Sahu (Darbhanga *Reserved*)
Lalit Narain Mishra (Saharsa)
Bholi Sardar (Saharsa *Reserved*)
Mohammad Tahir (Kishanganj)
Phanigopal Sen (Purnea)
Bholanath Biswas (Katihar)
Paika Murmu (Rajamahal *Reserved*)
S. C. Chowdhury (Dumka)
Debi Soren (Dumka *Reserved*)
Sm. Sakuntala Devi (Banka)
B. P. Jhunjhunwala (Bhagalpur)
Banarasi Prasad Sinha (Monghyr)
Nayantara Das (Monghyr *Reserved*)
Jiyalal Mandal (Khagaria)
Mathura P. Mishra (Begusarai)
Kailash Pati Singh (Nalanda)
Sm. Tarakeshwari Sinha (Barh)
Sarangdhara Sinha (Patna)
Baliram Bhagat (Shahabad)
Kamal Singh (Buxar)
Ram Subhag Singh (Sasaram)
Jagjiwan Ram (Sasaram *Reserved*)
Satyendra Narain Sinha (Aurangabad)
Sm. Satyabhama Devi (Nawada)
Ramdhani Das (Nawada *Reserved*)
Brajeshwar Prasad (Gaya)
Sm. Vijaya Raje (Chatra)

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S. A. Matin (Giridih)
D. C. Mallik (Dhanbad)
Sm. Lalita Rajyalaxmi (Hazaribagh)
M. R. Masani (Ranchi East)
M. K. Ghosh (Jamshedpur)
Sambhu Charan Godsora (Singhbhum *Reserved*)
Jaipal Singh (Ranchi West *Reserved*)
Ignace Beck (Lohardaga *Reserved*)
Gajendra P. Singh (Palamau)

GUJARAT—22

Bhawanji A. Khunji (Kutch)
Ghanshyamlal Oza (Ahmedabad)
Manubhai Shah (Madhya Saurashtra)
Jaisukhlal L. Hathi (Halar)
Narendrabhai Nathwani (Sorath)
Sm. Jayaben V. Shah (Goinar)
Balvantray G. Mehta (Gohilwad)
Akbarbhai Chavda (Baneskantha)
Guljarilal Nanda (Sibarkantha)
Purushothamdas R. Patel (Mehsana)
Motisinh B. Thakore (Patan)
Indulal K. Jajnik (Ahmedabad)
Kasandas Parmar (Ahmedabad *Reserved*)
Thakor Sri Fatehsinhji Ghodasan (Kaira)
Kumari Maniben V. Patel (Anand)
Maneklal M. Gandhi (Panchmahal)
Jaljibhai K. Dindad (Dohad) (*Reserved*)
Fatehsinhrao P. Gackward (Baroda)
Chandra Shekhar (Broach)
Chhaganlal M. Kedariah (Mandvi *Reserved*)
Morarji Desai (Surat)
N. N. Patel (Bulsar *Reserved*)

KERALA—18

S. Easwara Iyer (Trivandrum)
M. K. Kumaran ((Chirayinkil)
V. P. Nayar (Quilon)
P. K. Kodiyan (Quilon *Reserved*)
P. T. Punnoose (Ambalapuzha)
P. K. Basudevan Nair (Thiruvella)
M. Maniyangadan (Kottayam)
G. T. Kottukapally (Moovattupuzha)
A. M. Thomas (Ernakulam)
T. C. N. Menon (Mukundapuram)
K. K. Warior (Trichur)
V. Eacharan (Palghat)
P. Kunhan (Palghat *Reserved*)
K. P. Kuttikrishnan Nair (Kozhikode)
B. Pocker (Manjeri)
Dr. K. B. Menon (Badagara)
M. K. Jinachandran (Tellichery)
A. K. Gopalan (Kasargod)

MADHYA PRADESH—36

Radhacharan Sharma (Gwalior)
Surya Prasad (Gwalior *Reserved*)
Brij Narain Brajesh (Shivpuri)
Maharani Vijjaya Raje Scindia of Gwalior (Guna)
Lilladhar Joshi (Shajapur)
Kanhaiyalal B. Malvia (Shajapur *Reserved*)
Radhelal Vyas (Ujjain)
Manakbhai Agarwal (Mandsaur)
Amar Singh Damar (Jhabua *Reserved*)
Kanhaiyalal Khadiwala (Indore)
Ram Singh Bhai Verma (Nimar)
Sm. Maimoona Sultan (Bhopal)
Jwala Prasad Jotishi (Sagar)

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Sm. Sahodra Bai Rai (Sagar *Reserved*)
Seth Govind Das (Jabalpur)
Killedar (Hosangabad)
Pt. Babulal Tewari (Namar, Khandwa)
B. L. Chandak (Chhindwara)
N. M. Wadiwa (Chhindwara *Reserved*)
M. G. Uikey (Mandla *Reserved*)
C. D. Gautam (Balaghat)
Mohanlal Bakliwal (Durg)
Surti Kistaiya (Bastar *Reserved*)
Raja Birendra Bahadur Singh (Raipur)
Rani Kesarkumari Devi (Raipur *Reserved*)
Vidya Charan Shukla (Baloda-Bazar)
Sm. Minimata Agamdas Guru (Baloda Bazar *Reserved*)
Chandikeswar Saran Singh Ju Deo (Surguja)
Babunath Singh (Surguja *Reserved*)
Amar Saigal (Janjgir)
Reshamlal Jangde (Bilaspur)
Anand Chandra Joshi (Shahdol)
Kamal Narain Singh (Shahdol *Reserved*)
Shiva Datt Upadhaya (Rewa)
Ram Sahai Tewari (Khajuraho)
Motilal Malviya (Khajuraho *Reserved*)

MADRAS-41

S. C. C. Anthony Pillai (Madras North)
T. T. Krishnamachari (Madras South)
Dr. A. Krishnaswamy (Chingleput)
N. Siva Raj (Chingleput *Reserved*)
R. Govindarajulu Naidu (Tiruvallur)
N. R. M. Swami (Vellore)
M. Muthukrishnan (Vellore *Reserved*)
R. Dharmalingam (Thiruvannamalai)
A. Duraiswamy Gounder (Tiruppathur)
C. R. Narasinmhan (Krishnagiri)
Dr. P. Subbarayan (Tiruchengode)
S. V. Ramaswamy (Salem)
R. Kanakasabai (Chidambaram)
L. Elayaperumal (Chidambaram *Reserved*)
N. P. Shanmuga Gounder (Tindivanam)
T. D. Muthukumaraswamy Naidu (Cuddalore)
K. R. Sambandam (Nagapattinam)
M. Ayyakannu (Nagapattinam *Reserved*)
C. R. Pattibhi Raman (Kumbakonam)
R. Vairavan (Tanjore)
M. Palaniandy (Perambalur)
K. Periasami Gounder (Karur)
M. K. M. Abdul Salam (Tiruchirapalli)
R. Ramanathan Chettiar (Pudukkottai)
P. Subbiah Ambalam (Ramanathapuram).
U. Muthuramalinga Thevar (Srivilliputhur)
R. S. Arumugam (Srivilliputhur *Reserved*)
P. Thanulingam Nadar (Nagercoil)
T. Ganapathy (Tiruchendur)
P. T. Thanu Pillai (Tirunelveli)
M. Sankarapandian (Tenkasi)
R. Narayanaswamy (Periagulam)
K. T. K. Thangamani (Madurai)
M. Gulam Mohideen (Dindigul)
S. C. Balakrishnan (Dindigul *Reserved*)
P. R. Ramakrisnan (Pollachi)
E. V. K. Sampath (Namakhal)
S. R. Arumugam (Namakhal *Reserved*)

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K. S. Ramaswamy (Gobichettipalayam)
Sm. Parvathi M. Krishnan (Coimbatore)
C. Nanjappan (Nilgiris)

MYSORE—26

D. A. Katti (Chikodi)
B. N. Datar (Belgaum)
Joachim Alva (Kanara)
T. R. Neswai (Dharwar South)
D. P. Karmarkar (Dharwar North)
Balappa Bidari (Bijapur South)
M. S. Sugandhi (Bijapur North)
M. Rampure (Gulbarga)
Shanker Deo (Gulbarga *Reserved*)
Dr. G. S. Melkote (Raichur)
S. A. Agadi (Koppal)
Tekur Subramanyam (Bellary)
J. M. Mahamed Imam (Chitaldrug)
K. G. Wodeyar (Shimoga)
H. Siddananjappa (Hassan)
M. K. Shivananjappa (Mandya)
C. R. Basappa (Tiptur)
M. V. Krishnappa (Tumkur)
K. C. Reddy (Kolar)
Dodda Thimmiah (Kolar *Reserved*)
N. Keshava (Bangalore City)
H. C. Dasappa (Bangalore Rural)
M. Shankaraiya (Mysore)
S. M. Siddiah (Mysore *Reserved*)
K. R. Achar (Mangalore)
U. Srinivasa Malliah (Udipi)

MAHARASHTRA—44

S. K. Patil (Bombay City South)
S. A. Dange (Bom. City Central)
G. K. Manay (Bom. City Central *Reserved*)
V. K. Krishna Menon (Bombay City North)
Shamrao V. Purulekar (Thana)
Laxman M. Meterd (Thana *Reserved*)
R. B. Rant (Kolaba)
N. J. Goray (Poona)
J. J. Kechavrao (Baramati)
Balasaheb Salunke (Khed)
Premji R. Assar (Ratnagiri)
Nath Pai (Rajapur)
B. R. Mahagaonkar (Kolapur)
Shankarrao K. Dige (Kolhapur *Reserved*)
Balasaheb Patil (Miraj)
D. R. Chavan (Karad)
Nana Patil (Saltara)
J. G. More (Sholapur)
T. H. Sonavane (Sholapur *Reserved*)
R. K. Khadilkar (Ahmednagar)
B. C. Kamble (Koppergaon)
B. K. Gaikwad (Nasik)
Y. N. Jadav (Malgaon)
Laxman Veda Valvi (West Khandesh—*Reserved*)
Uttamrao L. Patil (Bhutia)
Naushir Bharucha (East Khandesh)
Shirvam R. Rane (Buldana)
Dr. Gohalrao Khedkar (Akola)
L. S. Bhatker (Akola *Reserved*)
Dr. P. S. Deshmukh (Amravati)
K. G. Deshmukh (Ramtek)
Dr. M. S. Aney (Nagpur)
R. M. Harjanavis (Bhandara)
Balkrishna Wasnik (Bhandara *Reserved*)
V. N. Swami (Chanda)
Kamalnarayan J. Bajaj (Wardha)
Dr. D. Y. Gohokar (Yeotmal)
Harihar Rao Sonule (Nanded)
Dr. Devrao N. P. Kamble (Nanded *Reserved*)
V. S. Naldurgker (Osmanabad)
R. D. Patil (Bhir)
N. K. Pangarkar (Parbhani)
Swami Ramananda Tirtha (Aurangabad)

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ORISSA—20

Jagannath Rao (Koraput)
T. Sanganna (Koraput *Reserved*)
Uma Charan Patnaik (Ganjam)
Mohan Naik (Ganjam *Reserved*)
Maharaja Pratap Keshari Deo (Kalahandi)
Bijaya Chandrasingh Pradhan (Kalahandi *Reserved*)
Sharaddhakar Supakar (Sambalpur)
Banamali Kumbhar (Sambalpur *Reserved*)
Kalo Chandramani (Sundargarh *Reserved*)
Laxminarayan Bhanja Deo (Keonjhar)
Ram Chandra Majhi (Mayurbhanj *Reserved*)
Bhagabar Sahu (Balasore)
Kanhu Charan Jena (Balasore *Reserved*)
Surendranath Dwivedy (Kendrapara)
Baishnab Charan Mullick (Kendrapara *Reserved*)
Nityananda Kanungo (Cuttack)
Surendra Mahanty (Dhenkanal)
Badkumar Pratap Ganga Deb Bamra (Angul)
Dr. N. C. Samantsinhar (Bhubaneswar)
Chintamani Panigrahi (Puri)

PUNJAB—22

Hemraj (Kangra)
Daljit Singh (Kangra *Resreved*)
Sm. Subhadra Joshi (Ambala)
Chuni Lal (Ambala *Reserved*)
Mool Chand Jain (Kaithal)
Ranbir S. Chaudhuri (Rohtak)
Chaudhuri Pratap Singh Daulta (Jhajjar)
Prakash Vir Shastri (Gurgaon)
Ram Krishna Gupta (Mahindragarh)
Thakur Dass Bhargava (Hissar)
Sardar Ikbal Singh (Ferozepur)
Sardar Surjit Singh Majithia (Tarn Taran)
Gurmukh Singh Musafir (Amritsar)
Dewan Chand Sharma (Gurdaspur)
Sardar Baldev Singh (Hoshiarpur)
Sardar Swaran Singh (Jullundur)
Sadhu Ram (Jullundur *Reserved*)
Ajit Singh Sarhadi (Ludhiana)
Bahadur Singh (Ludhiana *Reserved*)
Sardar Hukam Singh (Bhatinda)
Ajit Singh (Bhatinda *Resreved*)
Lala Achint Ram (Patiala)

RAJASTHAN—22

Radheyshyam Ramkumar Morarka (Jhunjhunnu)
Rameshwar Tantia (Sikar)
Harish Chandra Sharma (Jaipur)
G. D. Somani (Dausa)
Shobha Ram (Alwar)
Raj Bahadur (Bharatpur)
Pt. Hiralal Shastri (Sawai Madhopur)
Jagan Nath Prasad Pahadia (Sawai Madhopur *Reserved*)
Nemichandra Kasliwal (Kotah)
Onkar Lal (Kotah *Reserved*)
P. B. Bhogji Bhai (Banaswara *Reserved*)
Manikya Lal Varma (Udaipur)
Deen Bandhu Parmar (Udaipur *Reserved*)
Ramesh Chandra Vyas (Bhilwara)
Mukat Beharilal Bhargava (Ajmer)
Harish Chandra Mathur (Pali)
Suraj Ratan Damani (Jalore)
Maharajadhiraj Raghunath Singhi (Barmer)
Jaswantraj Mehta (Jodhpur)
Mathuradass Mathur (Nagaur)
Maharaja Karani Singhji (Bikaner)
Panna Lal Barupal (Bikaner *Reserved*)

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UTTAR PRADESH—86

Jang Bahadur Bist (Almora)
Bhakat Darshan (Garhwal)
H. H. Maharajah Manbendra Shah (Tehri Garhwal)
Mahavir Tyagi (Dehra Dun)
Ajit Prasad Jain (Saharanpur)
Sundar Lal (Saharanpur *Reserved*)
Sumat Prasad (Muzaffarnagar)
Shah Nawaz Khan (Meerut)
Vishnu Sharan Dublish (Sardhana)
Pt. Krishna Ch. Sharma (Hapur)
Raghubir Dayal Mishra (Bulandshar)
Kanhaiya Lal Balmiki (Bulandshar *Reserved*)
Abdul Lateef (Bijnor)
M. Hifzur Rahman (Amroha)
Ram Saran (Moradabad)
Syed Ahmed Mehdi (Rampur)
Satish Chandra (Bareilly)
C. D. Pande (Nainital)
Mohan Swaroop (Pilibhit)
Bishanchandar Seth (Shahjahanpur)
Narain Din (Shahjahanpur *Reserved*)
Raghubir Sahai (Budaun)
Chaudhri Badan Singh (Bisauli)
Jamal Khwaja (Aligarh)
Nardeo Sanatak (Aligarh *Reserved*)
Raja Mahendra Pratap (Mathura)
Seth Achal Singh (Agra)
Braj Raj Singh (Firozabad)
Krishna Chandra (Jalesar)
Rohanlal Chaturevedi (Etah)
Bansidas Dhangar (Mainpuri)
Dr. Sushila Nayar (Jhansi)
L. M. Dwivedi (Hamirpur)
Lachi Ram (Hamirpur *Reserved*)
Dinesh Singh (Banda)
Mulchand Dube (Farrukhabad)
Arjun Singh Bhadoria (Etawah)
Tula Ram (Etawah *Reserved*)
Jagadish Awasthi (Bilhaur)
S. M. Banerjee (Kanpur)
Ansar Harvani (Fatehpur)
Lal Bahadur Sastri (Allahabad)
Jawaharlal Nehru (Phulpur)
Masuriya Din (Phulpur *Reserved*)
J. N. Wilson (Mirzapur)
Rup Narain (Mirzapur *Reserved*)
Raghunath Singh (Varanasi)
Prabhunarain Singh (Chandauli)
Birbal Singh (Jaunpur)
Ganapati Ram (Jaunpur *Reserved*)
Haraprasad Singh (Ghazipur)
Sarju Pande (Rasra)
Radha Mohan Singh (Ballia)
Umrao Singh (Ghosi)
Kalika Singh (Azamgarh)
Vishwanath Prasad (Azamgarh *Reserved*)
Vishwanath Roy (Salempur)
Ramji Verma (Deoria)
Kashi Nath Pandey (Hata)
Shibban Lal Saxena (Maharajganj)
Sinhasan Singh (Gorahkpur)
Mahadeo Prasad (Gorakhpur *Reserved*)
Keshva Deva Malviya (Basti)
Ram Garib (Basti *Reserved*)
Ram Shankar Lal (Domariaganj)
Jogendra Singh (Bahraich)
Bhagwan Din Misra (Kaisarganj)
Atal Bihari Bajpaye (Balrampur)
Dinesh Pratap Singh (Gonda)
Ram Sewak Yadav (Barabanki)
Swami Ramanand Sastri (Barabanki *Reserved*)
Raja Ram Mishra (Faizabad)
Panna Lal (Faizabad *Reserved*)
Pt. Govind Malaviya (Sultanpur)
Dr. B. V. Keskar (Musafirkhana)
Pt. Munishwar Dutt Upadhyay (Pratapgarh)
Baijnath Kureel (Rae Bareily *Reserved*)
Lila Dhar Asthana (Unao)
Sm. Ganga Devi (Unao *Reserved*)
Pulin Behari Banerjee (Lucknow)
Chheda Lal Gupta (Hardoi)
Shivadin Drohar (Hardoi *Reserved*)
Sm. Uma Nehru (Sitapur)
Khushwant Raj (Kheri)

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WEST BENGAL—36

N. R. Ghosh (Cooch Behar)
Upendranath Barman (Cooch Behar *Reserved*)
T. Manaen (Darjeeling)
Chapalakanta Bhattacharjee (West Dinajpur)
Mardi Selku (West Dinajpur *Reserved*)
Sm. Renuka Ray (Malda)
Muhammed Khuda Baksh (Murshidabad)
Tridib K. Chaudhuri (Berhampore)
Anil Kumar Chanda (Birbhum)
Kamal Krishna Das (Birbhum *Reserved*)
Subiman Ghose (Burdwan)
Atulya Ghosh (Asansol)
Mono Mohan Das (Asansol *Reserved*)
Bibhutibhusan Dasgupta (Purulia)
Ramgoti Banerjee (Bankura)
Pashupati Mandal (Bankura *Reserved*)
Provat Kar (Hooghly)
Jitendra Nath Lahiri (Serampore)
Muhammed Elias (Howrah)
Aurobinda Ghoshal (Uluberia)
Nikunja Behari Maiti (Ghatal)
Narasingha Malla Deb (Midnapur)
Subodh Hansda (Midnapur *Reserved*)
Pramathanath Banerjee (Contai)
Satish Chandra Samanta (Tamluk)
Hirendra Nath Mukherjee (Calcutta Central)
Sadhan Chandra Gupta (Calcutta East)
A. K. Sen (Calcutta North-West)
Indrajit Gupta (Calcutta)
Purnendu Sekhar Nasker (Diamond Harbour)
Kansari Halder (Diamond Harbour *Reserved*)
Sm. Renu Chakravarty (Basirhat)
Paresh N. Kayal (Basirhat *Reserved*)
Bimal Coomar Ghose (Barrackpore)
Arun Chandra Guha (Barasat)
Sm. Ila Pal Chaudhuri (Nabadwip)

DELHI—5

Sm. Sucheta Kripalani (New Delhi)
Radha Raman (Chandni Chowk)
Chaudhury Brahm Prakash (Delhi Sadar)
C. Krishnan Nair (Outer Delhi)
Naval Prabhakar (Outer Delhi *Reserved*)

*JAMMU & KASHMIR—6

Bakshi Abdul Rashid
Inder J. Malhotra
Sm. Krishna Mehta
Abdur Rahman
Shekh Mohd. Akbar
A. M. Tariq

HIMACHAL PRADESH—4

Shiva Nand (Ramaul (Mahasu)
Nek Ram Negi (Mahasu *Reserved*)
Joginder Sen (Mandi)
Padam Dev (Chamba)

*Nominated by the President.

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MANIPUR—2

Laisram Achaw Singh (Inner Manipur)
Rungsung Suisa (Outer Manipur *Reserved*)

TRIPURA—2

Dasharatha Deb (Tripura)
Bangshi Thakur (Tripura *Reserved*)

*LACCADIVE, MINICOY & AMENDIVI ISLANDS—1

Koyilat Nallakoya

*ANDAMAN AND NICOBOR ISLAND

Lachman Singh

*ANGLO-INDIANS—2

Frank Anthony
A. E. T. Barrow

NEFA & NAGA HILLS—TUENSANG AREA

Chowkhamoon Gohain

RAJYA SABHA

Chairman—Dr. S. Radhakrisnan

Deputy Chairman—S. V. Krisnamoorthy

(*Members*)

ANDHRA PRADESH—18

Kota Punniah
J. C. Nagi Reddy
Makkineni Basavapunnaiah
Dr. Raj Bahadur Gour
Akbar Ali Khan
Alluri Satyanarayana Raju
Mudumala Henry Samuel
V. C. Kesava Rao
V. Prasad Rao
A. Balarami Reddy
S. Channa Reddy
Narottam Reddy
J. V. K. Vallabharao
Villuri Venkataramana
Sm. Yashoda Reddy
B. Gopala Reddi
A. Chakradhar
K. L. Narasimha Rao
Narla Veskateswara Rao
Sm. Sita Yudhvir

ASSAM—7

S. C. Deb
Sm. Bedavati Buragohain
Sm. Pushpalata Das
Purna Chandra Sharma
M. Tayyebulla
Liladhar Barua
Joyabhadra Hagier

BIHAR—22

Kaneshwar Singh
R. G. Agarwala
Ahmad Hussain
M. John
Kishori Ram
Sm. Lakshmi N. Menon

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Mahesh Saran
Mazhar Imam
Braja Kishore Prasad Sinha
Ganga Sharan Sinha
Rajendra Pratap Sinha
Sm. Jahanara Jaipal Singh
Rama Bahadur Sinha
R. D. Sinha Dinkar
Kuneshwar Singh
Pratul Chandra Mittra
R. P. N. Sinha
Tajamul Hussain
Shah Mohd. Umair
Sheel Bhadra Yajee
Avadeshwar Prasad Sinha
Kamta Singh
Debendra Prasad Sing

BOMBAY—27

Abid Ali
P. N. Rajabhoj
Dr. Waman S. Barlingay
Babubhai Chenai
Khandubhai K. Desai
T. R. Deogirikar
J. K. Modi
Ramrao Madhaorao Deshmukh
M. D. D. Gilder
Rohit M. Dave
Lalji Pendse
B. D. Khobaragade
G. R. Kulkarni
Lavji Lakhamshi
Deokinandan Narayan
Dhiaryashilrao Y. Pawar
Dr. Raghu Vira
S. D. Patil
Jethalal H. Joshi
M. D. Tumpalliwar
Dr. D. H. Variava
V. T. Nagpure
Viayakrao P. Patil
D. B. Desai
Mahepat M. Mehta
Kadardas K. Shah
Suresh J. Desai
Sripad K. Limaye

KERALA—9

Sm. K. Bharathi
K. Madhava Menon
P. J. Thomas
M. N. Govindan Nair
K. P. Madhavan Nair
Joseph Mathen
P. A. Solomon
Ebrahim Sait
A. Subha Rao

MADHYA PRADESH—16

Niranjan Singh
Mohammad Ali
Benarsi Das Chaturvedi
Gurudeo
Sm. Krishna Kumari
Ratanlal Kishorilal Malviya
Doyal Das Kurre
Trimbak Damodar Pustake
Dr. Raghubir Sinha
Ram Sahai
Sm. Rukmani Bai
V. V. Sarawate
Sm. Sita Parmanand
Kesho Prasad Singh
Bhanu Pratap Singh
Gopi Krishna Vijaivargiya

MADRAS—17

N. M. Anwar
Sm. G. Parthasarathy
T. S. Avinashilingam Chettair
T. V. Kamalaswamy
S. Chattanatha Karayalar
Dr. A. Ramaswami Mudaliar
Sm. T. Nallamuthu Ramamurthi
B. Parameswaran
Abdul Rahim
N. Ramakrishna Iyer

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G. Rajagopalan
T. S. Pattabiraman
N. M. Lingam
S. Venkataraman
Dawood Ali Mirza
R. Gopalkrishnan
P. Ramamurthi
Thomas Srinivasan

MYSORE—12

B. C. Nanjundaiya
Janardhan Rao Desai
Sm. Annapurna Thimmareddy
Mulka Govinda Reddy
N. Sri Rama Reddy
Dr. N. S. Hardiker
M. S. Gurupaduswamy
S. V. Krishnamoorthy Rao
M. Govinda Reddy
B. P. Basappa Shetty
Mohamed Valiulla
Sm. Violet Alva

ORISSA—10

Nanda Kishore Das
Harihar Patel
Biswanath Das
Dibakar Patnaik
Bibhudendu Misra
Bhagirathi Mahapatra
Maheswar Naik
Lokanath Mishra
Abbimanyu Rath
Bairagi Dwibedy

PUNJAB—11

Mohan Singh
Diwan Chaman Lall
Madhoram Sharma
Darshan Singh Pheruman
Jagan Nath Kaushal
Bansi Lal
Neki Ram
Raghbir Singh Panjhazari
Sm. Amrit Kaur
Giani Zail Singh
Jugal Kishore

RAJASTHAN—10

Kumbha Ram
Swami Keshvanand
Jainarain Vayas
Tikkaram Paliwal
Abdul Shakoor
Sm. Sharda Bhargava
Dr. K. L. Srimali
Jaswant Singh
Vijai Singh
Sadiq Ali

UTTAR PRADESH—34

G. S. Pathak
Jagannath Prasad Agarwal
Akhtar Husain
Bhagwat N. Bhargava
Sm. Anis Kidwai
Jashaud Singh Bisht
Sm. Chandravati Lakhanpal
Jogesh Chandra Chatterji
Nawab Singh Chauhan
Dharam Prakash
A. Dharam Das
Mohammad Faruqi
M. R. Shervani
Faridul Huq Ansari
Jaspat Roy Kapoor
Satyacharan
Dr. Hriday Nath Kunjru
Shyam Dhar Misra
Z. A. Ahmed
Tarkeswar Pande
Govind Ballabh Pant
Har Prasad Sakesna
P. N. Sapru
Sm. Savitry Devi Nigam
Nafisul Hasan
Piare Lall Kureel

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Ram Kripal Singh
Hira Ballabha Tripathi
Sham Sundar Narain Tankha
Ajeet Pratap Singh
Mahabir Prasad Bhargava
Bal Krishna Sharma
Mohammad Ibrahim
Ramgopal Gupta
Mukat Behari Lall

WEST BENGAL—16

Atindranath Bose
Nihar Ranjan Roy
Sm. Abha Maity
Rajpat Singh Doogar
Biren Roy
Santosh K. Basu
Bhupesh Gupta
P. D. Himatsingka
Humayun Kabir
Sudhir Kumar Ghosh
Sm. Maya Devi Chettry
Ansaruddin Ahmed
Satyendra Prosad Ray
Mriganka Mohan Sur
Surendra Mohan Ghose
Mehr Chand Khanna

JAMMU & KASHMIR—4

Budh Singh
Trilochan Dutta
Aga Syed Mohammad Jalali
Pir Mohammed Khan

DELHI—3

S. K. Dey
Km. Shanta Vashist
Ahmed Ali

HIMACHAL PRADESH—2

Anand Chand
Sm. Lila Devi

MANIPUR—1

Lalit Madhob Sharma

TRIPURA—1

Abdul Latif

NOMINATED BY THE PRESIDENT

K. M. Panikkar
Maithilisaran Gupta
Kakasaheb Kalekar
Jairamdas Daulatram
Tarasankar Banerjee
B. V. (Mama) Warerkar
M. Satyanarayana
A. R. Wadia
Mohanlal Saksena
Sm. Rukmini Devi Arundale
Dr. Tarachand
N. R. Malkani

INDIA'S REPRESENTATIVES ABROAD

COUNTRY	*DESIGNATION AND ADDRESS*
Afghanistan	.. Jagannath Dhamija, Ambassador, Shahre-Arad, Kabul.
Argentina	.. Maj.-Gen. T. S. Bal, Ambassador, Layvalle—462, Buenos Aires.

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Austria	..	Arthur S. Lall, Ambassador, Spitugassez, Vienna XVIII, Ambassador resident in Berne.
Belgium	..	M. A. Rauf, Ambassador (*Concurrently Minister to Luxemburg*), 585, Avenue Louise, Square du Bois, Brussels.
Brazil	..	M. K. Kripalani, Ambassador, Rua Barao do Flamengo, 22, Aptos 801-802, Rio de Janerio.
Burma	..	R. S. Mani, Ambassador, Oriental Buildings, 545-47, Merchant Street, Rangoon.
China	..	G. Parthasarathi, Ambassador, 32, Tung Chiao Min. Hsiang, Peking (*Concurrently Ambassador to Mongolia*).
Congo	..	M. A. Rahman (*Charge de Affairs*).
Chile	..	R. S. Mani, Ambassador, Santiago (*Concurrently Ambassador to Bolivia*).
Colombia	..	R. S. Mani.
Cambodia	..	Rajkumar Raghunath Sinha, Ambassador, Pnom Penh, Cambodia.
Czechoslovakia	..	B. K. Acharya, Ambassador, 22, Thunovaska, Prague III (*Concurrently Ambassador to Rumania*).
Cuba	..	H. E. M. C. Chagla, Ambassador, Havana.
Denmark	..	Kawal Singh, Ambassador Resident in Stockholm.
Ethiopia	..	Rao Raja R. G. Rajwade, Ambassador, 15, Rue Alfred Dehodeneq, Paris.
Finland	..	Kewal Singh, Ambassador, Finland.
France	..	N. Raghavan, Ambassador, 15 Rue Alfred Dechodenequ, Paris.
Germany (West)	..	P. A. Menon, Ambassador, 262, Koblenzostrasse, Bonn.
Greece	..	Ali Yavar Jung, Ambassador, (Resident in Belgrade).
Ghana	..	Khubchand, Ambassador, Accra, Ghana.
Guinea	..	Khubchand, Ambassador, Guinea ; (*Concurrently High Commissioner of Ghana*).
Indonesia	..	J. N. Khosla, Ambassador, P.B. No. 118-44, Kebon Serih, Djakarta.
Iran	..	Mirza Rashid Ali Beg, Ambassador, Avenue Shah Rez Teheran.
Iraq	..	I. S. Chopra, Ambassador 22/12, A. I. Tabari Street, Waziriah, Baghdad.
Ireland	..	Mrs. V. L. Pandit, Ambassador, (Embassy of India), 60 Fitz William Sq. Dublin (*Ambassador Resident in London*).
Italy	..	S. N. Haskar, Ambassador, via Francesco Denze, 36, Rome (*Concurrently Ambassador to Albania*).

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COUNTRY	DESIGNATION AND ADDRESS
Japan ..	C. P. N. Singh, Ambassador, Naigai Building 13/20, Chome, Marunouchi Chiyodaku, Tokyo.
Laos ..	Perala Ratnam, Ambassador, in Laos, Vientiane.
Liberia ..	Khubchand, Ambassador, (*Concurrently High Commissioner of Ghana*).
Madagaskar ..	J. A. Shah, Ambassador, Tananarive.
Mongolia ..	G. Parthasarathi, Ambassador, Resident in Peking.
Morocco ..	R. C. Goburdhun, Ambassador, 30, Avenue Allal Ben Abdellah, Rabat, Morocco.
Mexico ..	M. C. Chagla, Ambassador (*Concurrently Ambassador to U.S.A.*), 40, 5th Piso, Mexico City.
Nepal ..	Bhagwan Sahay, Ambassador, Kathmandu, Nepal.
Netherlands ..	R. K. Tandon, Ambassador, Buitenrustwag 2, The Hague.
Norway ..	V. M. Madhavan Nair, Ambassador, Oslo, Norway.
Philippines ..	S. M. Maitra, Ambassador, 1856 Nebraska Malate, Manila.
Poland ..	L. R. S. Singh, Ambassador, Resident in Moscow.
Rumania ..	B. K. Acharya, Ambassador, Resident in Prague.
Saudi Arabia ..	M. K. Kidwai, Ambassador, Jedda.
Sweden ..	Kewal Singh, Ambassador, Stockholm (*Concurrently Ambassador to Denmark and Finland*).
Switzerland ..	M. K. Vellodi, Ambassador, 59, Thuntrasse, Berne (*Concurrently Minister to Vatican and Ambassador to Austria*).
Sudan ..	Dr. Shaukatullah S. Ansari, Ambassador, Ismail Pasha Avenue, Khartoum, Sudan.
Thailand ..	Naranjan Singh Gill, Ambassador, 139, Pan Road, Bangkok.
Turkey ..	J. K. Atal, Ambassador, Ankara.
Spain ..	Mrs. V. L. Pandit, Ambassador, (*Concurrently High Commissioner of India to U. K.*).
United Arab Rep. ..	Muhammad Azim Hussain, Ambassador, 29, Sharia Hassan Pasha, Cairo (*Concurrently Minister of Lebanon and Libya*).
U.S.A. ..	M. C. Chagla, Ambassador, 2107, Massachusetts Avenue N.W. Washington, 8 D.C. (*Concurrently Ambassador to Mexico and Minister to Cuba*).

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COUNTRY	*DESIGNATION AND ADDRESS*
U.S.S.R. ..	S. Dutt, Ambassador, 6 & 8, Ulitisa Obukha, Moscow (*Concurrently Minister to Hungary and Ambassador to Poland*).
Yugoslavia ..	Ali Yavar Jung, Ambassador, Belgrade (*also concurrently Minister to Bulgaria and Ambassador to Greece*).
	2. HIGH COMMISSIONERS
Australia ..	S. N. Sen, I.C.S., High Commissioner (*Concurrently to New Zealand*), Civic Centre, Canberra.
Canada ..	B. N. Chakravarti, High Commissioner, 200, Maclaren Street, Ottawa.
Ceylon ..	B. K. Kapoor, High Commissioner, 67, Tarret Road, Colombo.
Malaya ..	Y. K. Puri, High Commissioner, Kuala Lumpur (*With extension of his jurisdiction to Sarwak Br. North Borneo and Brunei*).
New Zealand ..	P. A. Menon, High Commissioner, New Zealand (*also of Australia*).
Nigeria ..	P. N. Haksar, High Commissioner, Lagos, Nigeria.
Pakistan ..	Rajeswar Dayal, High Commissioner, Valika Mahal, Jahangir Sethna Rd., New Town, Karachi-5.
	K. V. Padmanabhan, Deputy High Commissioner, Karachi.
	P. K. Banerjee, Asst. High Commissioner, Rajshahi.
	S. C. Nandy, Dy. High Commissioner, Dacca.
United Kingdom ..	Mrs. Vijayalakshmi Pandit, High Commissioner, India House, Aldwych, London W.C. 21 (*Concurrently Ambassador to Ireland*).
	3. LEGATIONS
	S. N. Haskar, Minister, resident in Rome.
Albania ..	Ali Yavar Jung, Minister, Belgrade.
Bulgaria ..	M. C. Chagla, Minister, resident in Washing-
Cuba ..	ton.
	Kewal Singh, Minister, resident at Stock-
Finland ..	holm.
	K. P. S. Menon, Minister, Budapest.
Hungary ..	R. K. Nehru, Minister, 214, Rue Bliss, Beirut,
Lebanon ..	Lebanon.
	R. K. Nehru, Minister, resident at Cairo.
Libya ..	M. A. Rauf, Minister, resident in Brussels.
Luxemburg ..	M. K. Vellodi, Minister, resident at Berne.
Vatican ..	4. SPECIAL MISSIONS

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COUNTRY	DESIGNATION AND ADDRESS
United Nations ..	C. S. Jha, Permanent Rep. of India to U.N. with the rank of Ambassador, New India House, 3, East 64th St., New York.
Bhutan & Sikkim ..	Apa B. Pant (*Political Officer in Sikkim*).

5. CONSULATE GENERALS

Madagascar ..	J. P. Shah, Charge d'Affaires, Tananarive, Madagascar.
Copenhagen ..	Victor B. Strand, Hony. Consul.-General, Strandavagen, 47, IV, Stockholm.
Damascus ..	A. H. Safrani, 27, Chare al-Jalaa, Damascus.
Geneva ..	A. S. Mehta, Consul-General, Geneva, 2, Place des Eaux-Vives, Geneva.
Hamburg ..	R. D. Sathe, Consul-General, Hamburg.
Helsinki ..	Jubo Savio, Hony. Consul-General, Stockholm.
Lhasa (Tibet) ..	P. N. Kaul, Consul-General of India, Lhasa, P.O. Gyantse, Tibet.
New York ..	M. Gopala Menon, Consul-General, 3, East 64 St., New York.
Ruanda Urundi ..	I. J. Bahadur Singh, Consul-General, resident in Nairobi.
Saigon ..	S. Gupta, Consul-General, 213, Rue Catinat, Saigon.
San Francisco ..	C. J. Stracy, Consul-General, 417, Montgomery St. San Francisco.
Shanghai ..	S. Krishnaswamy, Consul-General, 810, Yenanly Central Shanghai (9).
Surinam ..	N. V. Rajkumar, Consul-General, resident at Port of Spain.
Viet Nam (North) ..	A. G. Meneses, Consul-General, 34, Ngo Quyen, Hanoi.
Muscat ..	M. N. Masud.

6. COMMISSIONS

Aden ..	Jagat Singh, Commissioner for Govt. of India, Aden.
Central African Federation (Br.) ..	I. J. Bahadur Singh, India House, 90-A, Victoria St., Salisbury, S. Rhodesea.
East Africa (Br.) ..	I. J. Bahadur Singh, Commissioner, India House, Duke Street, Nairobi, Kenya.
Fiji ..	K. G. Bhasin, Commissioner, V. B. Building, Waimanu Road, Suva (Fiji).
Hong Kong ..	F. M. de Mello Kamath, Commissioner, Hong Kong.
Mauritius ..	J. N. Dhamja, Commissioner, Port Louis, Mauritius.
Nigeria ..	Khubchand, Commissioner, Lagos (Nigeria).
Singapore ..	S. K. Banerjee, Commissioner, Grange Rd., Singapore.

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Uganda	..	I. J. Bahadur Singh, Kampala (Uganda).

7. CONSULATES

Basra	..	Puran Singh, Hony. Consul, Basra.
Kobe	..	R. L. Bhalla, Consul Kobe.
Khorramshahr	..	D. Sareen, Khorramshahr.
Medan	..	Mehar Singh, Consul, Medan (Indonesia).
Sourabaya	..	Sampuran Singh, Consul, Djalan Raja Gubeng, 32, Sourabaya.
Mandalay	..	K. L. S. Pandit, Mandalay.

8. VICE-CONSULATES

Antwerp	..	H. S. Gopal Rao, Vice-Consul, 43, Rue des Tanneurs, Antwerp.
Jalalabad	..	H. L. Kashyap, Vice, Consul, Jalalabad.
Kandahar	..	A. K. Bakshi, Vice-Consul, Kandahar.

9. AGENCIES

Gyantse	..	R. S. Kapoor, Indian Trade Agency, Gyantse (Tibet).
Gartok	..	L. S. Jangpangi, Indian Trade Agency, Gartok (West Tibet).
Yatung	..	K. C. Johorey, Indian Trade Agency, Yatung (Tibet).

Indian Government Trade Representatives

EUROPE

Designation and address	*Sphere of activities*
Shri S. Krishnamurti, I.F.S., Counsellor Commercial to the High Commission of India in the U.K., 'India House,' Aldwych, *London.*	The United Kingdom and Eire.
Shri H. K. Kochar, First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, 15 Rue Alfred Dehodeneg, *Paris*, XVI eme (France).	France.
Shri S. K. Guha, I.A.S., First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, Via Francisco, Denze 36, *Rome* (Italy).	Italy.
Shri R. N. Philips, Director, India Trade Centre, Kaiserstrasse, 33, Frankfurt main (West Germany).	
Shri A. B. Gokhale, I.F.S., First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embasy of India, 262, Koblenzostrasse, *Bonn* (West Germany).	Germany.

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Designation and address	*Sphere of activities*
Shri R.D. Sathe, I.F.S., Counsul-General of India, 14, Burchardstr Sprinkenhof Hamburg.	State of Hamburg, Bremen and Schleswing Holstain.
Shri H. C. Hogg, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India in Belgium.	Belgium.
Sri H. S. Gopala Rao, Vice Consulate, 43, Rue Des Tannure, *Antwerp.*	
Shri Madanjit Singh, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, Strandvager (Ground Floor), *Stockholm* (Sweden).	Sweden, Finland and Denmark.
Shri Ishwar Sahay, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, 22, Thounovaska, *Prague-III*, Czechoslovakia.	Czechoslovakia.
Second Secretary (Commercial), Embassy of India, Bucharest.	Rumania.
P. Vaidyanathan, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, No 6 and 8, Ulites Obukha, *Moscow.*	U.S.S.R.
Shri M. Bhavandas, First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, *Berne.*	Switzerland.
Shri S. H. Deaf, First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, Proleterokel Belgrade (Yugoslavia).	Yogoslavia, Bulgaria and Greece.
Shri R. C. Malhotra, Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, No. 3, Aleie, Roz., Warsaw.	Poland.
AMERICA	
Shri J. K. Malhotra, First Secretary (Commercial) to the High Commission for India in Canada, 200, Mclaren Street, *Ottawa* (Canada).	Canada.
Shri S. G. Ramchandran, L.F.S., Counsellor (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, 2107, Massachusetts Avenue, N. M. *Washington*-8, D.C. (U.S.A.).	U.S.A. and Mexico.
Shri L. Rangarajan, I.F.S., Vice Consul, Consulate General of India, 417, Montogomery St., San Francisco.	S.F.
Shri M. Gopala Menon, I.F.S., Consulate General of India, 3 East 64 St. New York.	EY
AFRICA	
Shri V. V. Dev, Indian Trade Commissioner, Post Box No. 614, *Mombasa.*	East Africa, Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland.

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Designation and address	*Sphere of activities*
Shri S. V. Patel, I.F.S., Counsellor (Commercial) to the Embassy of India in U.A.R., Suliman Pashi St., *Cairo* (U.A.R.).	U.A.R., Lebanon, Cyprus and Libya.
Shri H. K. Singh, First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, Khartoum (Sudan).	Sudan.
Shri P. N. Sareen, Second Secretary (Commercial) Embassy of India, P. Box No. 528, Addis Ababa.	

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

Shri H. A. Sujan, Indian Trade Commissioner, Caltex House, 10th Floor, 167—187 Kent Street, *Sydney* (Australia).	Australia and its Overseas Territories including Norfolk and Nauru.
Shri V. C. Vijaya Raghavan, I.F.S., First Secretary (Commercial) to the High Commission for India in New Zealand, Wingdgor Building, 49, Wilt Street, *Wellington* (New Zealand).	New Zealand.

ASIA

Shri R. K. Jerath, I.F.S., First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India in Japan Empire House (Naigai Building), Maruneachi, *Tokyo* (Japan).	Japan.
Shri M. K. Roy, First Secretary (Commercial) to the High Commission for India in Ceylon, 67, Tarret Rd., P.B. No. 882, Colpatty *Colombo* (Ceylon).	Ceylon.
Shri E. C. Sankar, First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, Oriental Building, 545—47, Merchant St. P. B. No. 751, *Rangoon* (Burma).	Burma.
Shri N. K. Nigam, First Secretary (Commercial) to the High Commission for India in Pakistan, 3, Bonus Road, *Karachi* 4 (West Pakistan).	Pakistan.
Shri B. M. Ghosh, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the High Commission for India in Pakistan, 3-Ramakrishna Mission Road, *Dacca* (East Pakistan).	East Pakistan.
Shri G. J. Malik, I.F.S., Counsellor (Commercial) to the Commissioner for India, India House, 31-Grand Road, P. B. No. 836, *Singapore.*	Malaya and Singapore.
Shri S. M. Alhashmi, I.F.S., Third Secretary to the Embassy of India, 37-Phya Thai Ro., *Bangkok* (Thailand).	Thailand.

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Commercial Section, Embassy of India, 914-Nabrske, *Manila* (Philippines).	Philippines (Under the Ambassador, Embassy of India, Manila).
Shri B. R. Abhayanker, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, P. B. 178, 44, Kebon Sirib, *Dajakarta* (Indonesia).	Indonesia.
Shri Jagat Singh, I.F.S., Commissioner for the Government of India in Aden, *Aden.*	Aden, British Somaliland and Italian Somaniland.
Shri R. Axel Khan, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, Auvenue Shah Raza, *Tehran* (Iran).	Iran.
Shri S. Verghese, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, 8/8, Safi-ul-Deenel Hilly Street, Waziriah, *Baghdad* (Iraq).	Iraq, Jordan, Persian Gulf, Kuwait, Bahrein Sheikhdoms, Sharjali, Quarter & Trucia, Oman.
Shri P. Das Gupta, First Secretary (Commercial) to the Embassy of India, 32, Tung Chiao Min., Lsiang, *Peking* (China).	China.
Shri P. E. Peachey, Second Secretary (Commercial) to the Commissioner for the Government of India, Tower Court, 11th Floor, Hysian Avenue, Hongkong.	Hongkong.
The Second Secretary to the Embassy of India, Phnon Penh.	Cambodia.
P. T. B. Menon, II Secretary (Commercial) Embassy of India, Santiago, Chile.	Chile.

N.B.—I—The following Officers are looking after India's Trade interest in Tibet—

(*i*) Commercial Secretary to the Indian Political Officer in Sikkim, *Gangtok.*

(*ii*) Indian Trade Agent, Yatung (Tibet).

N.B. 2—In places where there are no separate Commercial Representatives, Indian Diplomatic and Consular Officers look after India's commercial interests.

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FOREIGN DIPLOMATS IN INDIA

AMBASSADORS

Country	*Designation and Name*
Afghanistan ..	Ambassador, H. E. Sardar Ala General Mohammad Omar, 24, Rotendone Road, New Delhi.
Argentina ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. R. F. Mosquera, 201, Ashoka Hotel, New Delhi.
Austria ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Arno Halusa, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.
Belgium ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Prancis Leo Goffart, 225, Jor Bagh, New Delhi.
Brazil ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Jose Cochrane de Alencar, 8, Aurangzeb Road, New Delhi.
Burma ..	Ambassador, H. E. Maha Thiri Thudhamma Daw Khin Kye (Madam Aung San), 2, Kitchner Road, New Delhi.
Cambodia ..	Ambassador, H. E. Var Kamel, 25, Golf Links, New Delhi.
China ..	Ambassador, H. E. Pan Tzu-Li, Jind House, Lytton Road, New Delhi.
Czechoslovakia ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Ladislar Simovic, 22/39, Kautilya Marg. New Delhi.
Chile ..	Ambassador, H. E. Miguel S. Fernandez, 23, Prithviraj Road, New Delhi.
Colombia ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Leopoldo Borda-Roldan, New Delhi.
Cuba ..	Eugenio Soler Alonso, Ambassador, New Delhi.
Denmark ..	Ambassador, H. E. Arne Bogh Andersen, 9A, Nizamuddin West, New Delhi.
Ethiopia ..	Ambassador, H. E. Ras Haile Selassie Imru, 29, Prithviraj Road, New Delhi.
France ..	Ambassador, H. E. Count Stanislas Ostrorog, 2, Aurangzeb Road, New Delhi.
Finland ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Sigurd W. Von Numers.
Germany West ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Wilhelm Melchers, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.
Greece ..	Ambassador, H. E. Hadji Vassiliou, Ashoka Hotel, New Delhi.
Hungary ..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Lazlo Recezeii, New Delhi.
Indonesia ..	Ambassador, H. E. Radan Moekarto Notowidigdo, 50A, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.

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Iran	..	Ambassador, H. E. M. Kazemi, 1, Hailey Lane, New Delhi.
Iraq	..	Ambassador, H. E. Nuri Jamal, 21, Prithviraj Road, New Delhi.
Italy	..	Ambassador, H. E. Count Justo Giusti Del Giardino, Jorbagh, New Delhi.
Japan	..	Ambassador, H. E. Shiroshi Nasu, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.
Laos	..	Ambassador, H. E. Phagna Bouasy, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.
Mexico	..	Ambassador, H. E. Luis F. MacGregor, Connaught Place, New Delhi.
Mongolia	..	Ambassador, H. E. Mangal Yn Dugerzuren, 26, Golf Links Area, New Delhi.
Morocco	..	Ambassador, H. E. Dr. Ahmed Benaboud, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.
Nepal	..	Ambassador, H. E. Lt.-Gen. Daman Shamshere Jung Bahadur Rana, Barakhamba Road, New Delhi.
Netherlands	..	Ambassador, H. E. G. B. Van Blokland, 4, Ratendone Road, New Delhi.
Norway	..	Ambassador, H. E. Hans Olav, 21 Sundar Nagar, New Delhi.
Philippines	..	Ambassador, H. E. Manuel A. Alzate, 2, Thapar Building, 124, Janapath, New Delhi.
Poland	..	Ambassador, H. E. Juliusz Kutz-Suchy, 22, Golf Links Area, New Delhi.
Rumania	..	Ambassador, H. E. Nicolæ Cioroi, New Delhi.
Saudi Arabia	..	Ambassador, H. E. Shaikh Yusuf Alfozan, 6, Hardinge Avenue, New Delhi.
Sweden	..	Ambassador, H. E. Count de Artaza, 21, Prithviraj Road, New Delhi.
Switzerland	..	Ambassador, H. E. Jacques Albert Cuttat, 1, Radial Road, New Delhi.
Sudan	..	Ambassador, H. E. Syed Abdel Karim Mirghani, 197, Sundarnagar, New Delhi.
Spain	..	Ambassador, H. E. Count de Artaza, 12A, Prithviraj Road, New Delhi.
Thailand	..	Ambassador, H. E. Sukich Nimmanheminda, New Delhi.
Turkey	..	Ambassador, H. E. Needet Kent, 27, Jor Bagh, New Delhi.
United Arab Rep.	..	Ambassador, H. E. Ahmed Hassan Elfeky, 6, Ratendone Road, New Delhi.
U. S. A.	..	Ambassador, H. E. Elisworth Bunker, Chanakya Road, New Delhi.
U. S. S. R.	..	Ambassador, H. E. I. A. Benediktov, Travancore House, New Delhi.
Yugoslavia	..	Ambassador, H. E. Dusah Kvder, 13 Sundarnagar, New Delhi.

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HIGH COMMISSIONS

Australia	..	High Commissioner, H. E. Mr. W. R. Crocker, Connaught Place, New Delhi.
Canada	..	High Commissioner, H. E. Mr. Chester Ronning, 4, Aurangzeb Road, New Delhi.
Ceylon	..	High Commissioner, H. E. Sir Richard Aluwihare, 224, Jor Bagh, New Delhi.
Ghana	..	High Commissioner, H. E. Nana Kwabena Kena II, 2, Golf Links, New Delhi.
Malaya	..	High Commissioner, H. E. Chelvansugham Macintyre, 15, Jor Bagh, New Delhi.
New Zeland	..	High Commissioner, H. E. R. G. Powles, 10, Janpath, New Delhi.
Pakistan	..	High Commissioner, H. E. A. K. Brohi, Shershah Road, New Delhi.
U. Kingdom	..	High Commissioner, H. E. Sir Paul Gorebooth, 6, Tees January Marg, New Delhi.

LEGATIONS

Albania	..	Envoy Extraordinary & Minister Plenipotentiary, H. E. Ulvi Lulo.
Bulgaria	..	Envoy Extraordinary & Minister Plenipotentiary, H. E. Dr. Lyuben Poper, 198, Golf Links Area, New Delhi.
Holy See	..	Apostolio Internuncio, H. E. The Most Revd. James Robert Knox, Niti Marg, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.
Hungary	..	Envoy Extraordinary & Minister Plenipotentiary, H. E. Aladar Tamas, 10, Pusa Road, New Delhi.
Lebanon	..	Envoy Extraordinary & Minister Plenipitentiary, H. H. Halim Said Abu Jzzeddin, Ashoka Hotel, New Delhi.

Trade Representatives of Overseas Government in India

Name of the Country		*Address*
AFGHANISTAN	..	(*i*) The Commercial Attache to the Royal Afghan Embassy in India, 24 Ratendone Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Consul General to the Royal Afghan Embassy, 115 Walkeshwar Road, Bombay 6. (*iii*) The Trade Agent for Afghanistan, Amritsar.

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Name of the Country	*Address*
AUSTRIA ..	The Austrian Trade Representative in India, Queen's Mansions, Bastion Road, Fort, P. B. No. 1385, Bombay
AUSTRALIA ..	(*i*) The Commercial Counsellor and Senior Trade Commissioner, Theatre Communication Bldg. Connaught Place, New Delhi. .. (*ii*) The Australian Government Trade Commissioner in India, Mercantile Bank Building (2nd Floor), Mahatma Gandhi Road, G.P.O. No. 217, Bombay (*iii*) The Australian Government Trade Commissioner in India, 2 Fairlie Place, Calcutta.
BELGIUM ...	(*i*) The Commercial Counsellor to the Belgian Embassy in India, "Pradip Lodge", 225, Jor Bagh, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Consul General for Belgium, 11, Carmmichael Road, Bombay 26. (*iii*) The Consul General for Belgium, 6, Camac Street, Calcutta.
BOLIVIA ..	The Consul General for Bolivia, Wellesley House, 7, Wellesley Place, Calcutta 1.
BRAZIL ...	The Consul General of Brazil, 8/6, Alipur Park Road (Ground Floor), Calcutta 27.
BULGARIA ..	The Commercial Counsellor and Trade Representative for Bulgaria, 198, Golf Links Area, New Delhi.
BURMA ..	(*i*) The First Secretary (Commercial), 109/48, Naya Marg, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Asstt. Trade Commissioner, 12, Dalhousie Square, East, Calcutta.
CANADA ..	(*i*) The Counsellor (Commercial) to the High Commissioner for Canada in India, 4 Aurangzeb Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Canadian Government Trade Commissioner, Gresham Assurance House, Mint Road, P.O. Box 886, Bombay.
CEYLON ..	The Trade Commissioner for Ceylon in India, Ceylon House. Bruce Street, Fort, Bombay 1.
CHINA ..	(*i*) The Counsellor for Commercial Affairs to the Embassy of the People's Republic of China in India, Jind House, Lytton Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Consul General of the People's Republic of China, "Bhulabhai Desai Bungalow", No. 10, Bomanji Petit Road, Bombay. (*iii*) The Trade Agent of the People's Republic of China—Kalimpong. (*iv*) The Trade Agent of the People's Republic of China, 18, Camac Street, Calcutta.

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Name of the Country	*Address*
COSTA RICA ..	The Consul General of Costa Rica, "Maneckia Chambers", Flat 15-16, Top Floor, Opp Metro Cinema, 1st Marine Street, Bombay 2.
CZECHOSLOVAKIA	(*i*) Commerial Counsellor and Trade Representation of the Czechoslovak Republic, 65, Golf Link Area, Post Box 313, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Trade Representation of the Czechoslovak Republic, Kasturi Buildings, Jamshedji Tata Road, Bombay 1. (*iii*) The Trade Representation of the Czechoslovak Republic, P-38, Mission Raw Extension, Calcutta 13. (*iv*) The Assistant Trade Representation of the Czechoslovak Republic, 4-A, Vallimmal Road, Vepery, Madras 7.
DENMARK ..	(*i*) The Trade Commissioner for Denmark in India, Pallonji Mansion, New Caffe Parade, Colaba, Bombay 5. (*ii*) The Consul to the Government of Denmark, C/o. Peirce Leslie & Co. Ltd., Cochin I. (*iii*) The Consul to the Government of Denmark, Mercantile Bank Buildings, First Line Beach Road, Madras.
DOMINICAN REP.	(*i*) The Consul General for Dominican Republic, "Mistry Court", 208, Dinshaw Watcha Road, Opposite C.C.I., Bombay 1. (*ii*) The Consul for Dominican Republic, 10/1, Elgin Road, Calcutta 20.
EL SALVADOR ..	The Consul for El Salvador, 12, P. K. Tagore Street, Calcutta 6.
ETHOPIA ..	The Consul for Ethiopia, Crescent Chambers, Closed Tamarind Lane, Fort, Bombay.
FINLAND ..	(*i*) The Commercial Counsellor Finish, Legation in India, I, Humayun Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Consul for Finland, Chartered Bank Bldg., Mahatma Gandhi Road, Bombay I. (*iii*) The Consul for Finland, C/o. M/s. James Finlay & Co. Ltd., P. Box No. 209, 2, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta.
FRANCE ..	(*i*) Counsellor for Economic Affairs, 2 Auranzeb Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Trade Commissioner to the Embassy of France in India, 'Adelphi Building', Queen's Road, Bombay I. (*iii*) The Trade Commissioner to the Embassy of France in India, 13, 'Park Mansions', Park Street, Calcutta.

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Name of the Country	*Address*
	(*iv*) The Trade Commissioner for France to South India, 4, Lamech Avenue. Off Spurtank Road, Chetput, Madras 31.
GERMANY (WEST)	(*i*) The Commercial Counsellor, Embassy of the Federal Republic of Germany, Shanti Path, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.
	(*ii*) The Consul General for the Federal Republic of Germany. "Dugal House", 5th Floor, 3, Backbay Reclamation, Bombay 1.
	(*iii*) The Consul General for the Federal Republic of Germany, 113, Brabourne Road, "Ilaco House", Calcutta 1.
	(*iv*) The Consul General for the Federal Republic of Germany, Bombay Mutual Building. 378, Netaji Bose Road, Madras.
GERMANY (EAST)	(*i*) Trade Representative of the German Democratic Republic, 22/39 Kantilya Marg, New Delhi.
	(*ii*) Dy. Trade Representative of the German Democratic Republic, Mistry Bhavan, 122, Dinsha Wacha Road, Bombay.
	(*iii*) Dy. Trade Representative, P-17, Mission Row Extension, Faraday House, Calcutta.
	(*iv*) Trade Representative, German Democratic Republic, 4 Valliamal Road, Madras.
GHANA ..	Trade Agent for Ghana, Ashoka Hotel, New Delhi.
GREECE ..	The Consul General of Greece, Wellesley House, 7. Wellesley Place, Calcutta 1.
HAITI ..	(*i*) The Consul for Haiti, Vallard View, Peddar Road, Bombay 26.
	(*ii*) The Consul for Haiti, 2, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta 6.
HUNGARY ..	(*i*) The Commercial Counsellor and Trade Representative to the Legation of Hungary in India, 10. Pussa Road. Block No. 11, Northern Extension Area. New Delhi.
	(*ii*) Trade Commission of Hungary in India, Revills, 45, Caffe Parade, Bombay 5.
	(*iii*) The Trade Commissioner of Hungary, 229. Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.
INDONESIA ..	(*i*) Counsellor for Economic Affairs, Indonesia, 50-A, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi.
	(*ii*) The Consul for Indonesia, Lincoln Annexe, 17, Altamount Road, Cumbala Hill, Bombay 2.
	(*iii*) The Counsil for Indonesia, 1311, Old Court House Street, Calcutta 1.

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Name of the Country	*Address*
IRAN ..	The Second Secretary, Commercial and Economic Affairs for Embassy of Iran, I, Hailey Lane, New Delhi.
IRAQ ..	The Consul General of the Republic of Iraq, 203, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hills, Bombay 6.
ISRAEL ..	The Consul for Israel, "Kailas", 50, Peddar Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay 26.
ITALY ..	(*i*) The Commercial Counsellor to the Embassy of Italy in India, 7, Jor Bagh, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Assistant Commissioner to the Embassy of Italy, 10, Esplanade Mansion, Calcutta I. (*iii*) The Consul for Italy, Post Box No. 1521, "Vaswani Mansion," Dinsha Wacha Road, Bombay 1.
JAPAN ..	(*i*) The First Secretary (Commercial) to the Japanese Embassy in India, Plot Nos. 4 & 5, Block 50 G, Chanakyapuri, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Consul General for Japan, "White House," 91, Walkeshwar Road, Bombay 6. (*iii*) The Consul General for Japan, 12, Pretoria Street, Calcutta 16.
LIBERIA ..	The Consul for Liberia, 7-2, Jamir Lane, Calcutta 19.
NEPAL ..	The Consul General for Nepal, "Woodlands", Sternadale Road, Alipore, Calcutta 27.
NETHERLANDS ..	The Consul General for Netherlands, 298, Bazargate Street, Bombay 1.
NEW ZELAND ..	The Commercial Secretary and Trade Commissioner, 10 Janpath, New Delhi.
NORWAY ..	(*i*) The Trade Commissioner to the Embassy of Norway in India, Imperial Chambers, Wilson Road, Bombay 1. (*ii*) The Consul General for Norway, Imperial Chambers, Wilson Road, Bombay 1. Post Box No. 294, Bombay 1. (*iii*) The Consul General for Norway, P.B. 2211, 14, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta 1.
PAKISTAN ..	The First Secretary (Commercial) to the High Commissioner for Pakistan in India, Sher Shah Road Mess, New Delhi.
PANAMA ..	The Consul General for Panama, No. 9, Imperial Chambers, Wilson Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay 1.
PERU ..	The Consul General for Peru, Room No. 204, Great Eastern Hotel, Calcutta.

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Name of the Country	*Address*
PHILIPPINES ..	The Consul for the Philippines, Polson Building, 65-B, Dock Yard Road, Mazagaon, Bombay 16.
POLAND ..	(*i*) The Commercial Counsellor, Embassy of Polish People's Republic in India, 22, Golf Links Area, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Trade Commissioner of the Polish People's Republic in India, 40/A, Pedder Road, Jugal Kishore Bldg., Bombay 26. (*iii*) The Trade Commissioner of the Polish People's Republic in India, Park Street, Calcutta.
RUMANIA ..	(*i*) The Commercial Counsellor and Trade Representative, Embassy of Rumania, 48, Golf Link Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Trade Representative for Rumania in India, Steelcrete House, Dinsha Wacha Road, Churchgate Reclamation, Bombay 1.
SPAIN ..	The Acting Trade Commissioner for Spain in India, "Mistry Court," Dinsha Wacha Road, Churchgate Reclamation, Bombay.
SUDAN ..	Consul General of the Republic of the Sudan, Bombay.
SWEDEN ..	(*i*) Trade Commissioner for Sweden, Flat No. 1 Shargrila, Carmichael Rgo, P.O.-Box 6564 Bombay 26. (*ii*) Trade Commissioner for Sweden, 7, Wellesley Place, Calcutta. (*iii*) The Consul General of Sweden, 38C, Mount Road, Madras 6.
SWITZERLAND ..	(*i*) The Commercial Secretary to the Embassy of Switzerland, Theatre Communication Building, No. 1, Radial Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Swiss Trade Commissioner, Gresham Assurance House, Sir P. M. Road, P. O. Box 102, Bombay 1.
THAILAND ..	Thai Government Trade Commissioner in India 2, Nazal Ali Road, off 64 Ballygunge Road, Calcutta 19.
TURKEY ..	The Consul General for Turkey, "Mistry Court", 208, Dinshaw Wacha Road, Backbay Reclamation, Bombay 1.
U. A. R. ..	(*i*) Commercial Counsellor to the United Arab Republic, 6, Ratendone Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Consul-General of U.A.R., Cambata Building, 3rd Floor, 124-D, Queen's Road, Churchgate Reclamation, Bombay 1. (*iii*) The Consul General for U.A.R., 8/6, Alipore Park Road, Calcutta-27.

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Name of the Country	*Address*
UNITED KINGDOM	(*i*) The Economic Adviser to the High Commissioner and Senior United Kingdom Trade Commissioner in India, 6, Tees January Marg, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Principal United Kingdom Trade Commissioner at Bombay, P. O. Box 815, Mercantile Bank Building, Mahatma Gandhi Road, Bombay 1. (*iii*) The Principal United Kingdom Trade Commissioner at Calcutta, 1, Harrington Street, Calcutta 16. (*iv*) The United Kingdom Trade Commissioner at Madras, P. O. Box 15756, Armenian Street, Madras.
U. S. A. ..	(*i*) The Counsellor for Economic Affairs to the Embassy for the United States of America in India, Shantipath, Chankyapuri, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Consul General for the United States of America in India, 5/1, Harrington Road, Calcutta 16. (*iii*) The Consul-General for the United States of America in India, Construction House, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay 1. (*iv*) The Consul-General for the United States of America in India, 150-B, Mount Road, Madras 2.
U. S. S. R. ..	(*i*) The Counsellor and Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R., in India, Travancore House, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R., in India, 4, Camac Street, Calcutta. (*iii*) The Deputy Trade Representative of the U.S.S.R. in India, Vasundhara House, Bhulabhai Desai Road, Bombay 26.
YUGOSLAVIA ..	(*i*) The Counsellor for Economic Affairs, Embassy of Yugoslavia, 13, Bundar Nagar, Mathura Road, New Delhi. (*ii*) The Representative of the Federal Chamber of Foreign Trade of Yugoslavia, P. 105-B, Block F. New Alipore, Calcutta 33. (*iii*) The Representative of the Federal Chamber of Foreign Trade of Yugoslavia, 120, Dinsha Wacha Road, Vaswani Mansions, Bombay 1.

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Acts for the Year 1960

Act No.	Name of the Act.
1.	The Administration of Evacuee Property (Amendment) Act, 1960.
2.	The Displaced Persons (Compensation and Rehabilitation) Amendment Act, 1960.
3.	The Appropriation Act, 1960.
4.	The Imports and Exports (Control) Amendment Act, 1960.
5.	The Motor Vehicles (Amendment) Act, 1960.
6.	The Geneva Conventions Act, 1960.
7.	The Appropriation (Railways) Act, 1960.
8.	The Appropriation (Railways) No. 2 Act, 1960.
9.	The Appropriation (Vote on Account) Act, 1960.
10.	The Orphanages and other Charitable Homes (Supervision and Control) Act, 1960.
11.	The Bombay Reorganisation Act, 1960.
12.	The Appropriation (No. 2) Act, 1960.
13.	The Finance Act, 1960.
14.	The Reserve Bank of India (Amendment) Act, 1960.
15.	The Appropriation (Railways) No. 3 Act, 1960.
16.	The Estate Duty (Amendment) Act, 1960.
17.	The Supreme Court (Number of Judges) Amendment Act, 1960.
18.	The Indian Boilers (Amendment) Act, 1960.
19.	The Hindu Marriage (Validation of Proceedings) Act, 1960.
20.	The Representation of the People (Amendment) Act, 1960.
21.	The Rubber (Amendment) Act, 1960.
22.	The Cotton Transport (Amendment) Act, 1960.
23.	The Banking Companies (Amendment) Act, 1960.
24.	The Delhi Land Holdings (Ceiling) Act, 1960.
25.	The Agricultural Product (Grading and Marking) Amendment Act, 1960.
26.	The Press and Registration of Books (Amendment) Act, 1960.
27.	The Evacuee Interest (Separation) Amendment Act, 1960.
28.	The Taxation Laws (Amendment) Act, 1960.
29.	The Appropriation (Railways) No. 4 Act, 1960.
30.	The Appropriation (No. 3) Act, 1960.
31.	The Tripura Municipal Law (Repeal) Act, 1960.
32.	The International Development Association (Status, Immunities and Privileges) Act, 1960.
33.	The Manipur Land Revenue and Land Reforms Act, 1960.
34.	The Plantations Labour (Amendment) Act, 1960.
35.	The Drugs (Amendment) Act, 1960.
36.	The Appropriation (No. 4) Act, 1960.
37.	The Banking Companies (Second Amendment) Act, 1960.

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38. The Central Excises (Conversion to Metric Units) Act, 1960.
39. The Delhi Primary Education Act, 1960.
40. The Customs Duties and Cesses (Conversion to Metric Units) Act, 1960.
41. The Standards of Weights and Measures (Amendment) Act, 1960.
42. The Indian Trade Unions (Amendment) Act, 1960.
43. The Tripura Land Revenue and Land Reforms Act, 1960.
44. The Indian Aircraft (Amendment) Act, 1960.
45. The Indian Museum (Amendment) Act, 1960.
46. The Employees Provident Funds (Amendment) Act, 1960.
47. The Bilaspur Commercial Corporation (Repeal) Act, 1960.
48. The Mahendra Pratab Singh Estates (Repeal) Act, 1960.
49. The Appropriation (Railways) No. 5 Act, 1960.
50. The Appropriation (No. 5) Act, 1960.
51. The Motor Vehicles (Second Amendment) Act, 1960.
52. The Indian Post Office (Amendment) Act, 1960.
53. The Tripura Excise Law (Repeal) Act, 1960.
54. The Railways Passenger Fares (Amendment) Act, 1960.
55. The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act, 1960.
56. The Code of Criminal Procedure (Amendment) Act, 1960.
57. The British Statutes (Application to India) Repeal Act, 1960.
58. The Repealing and Amending Act, 1960.
59. The Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act, 1960.
60. The Children Act, 1960.
61. The Preventive Detention (Continuance) Act, 1960.
62. The Forward Contracts (Regulation) Amendment Act, 1960.
63. The Preference Shares (Regulation of Dividends) Act, 1960.
64. The Acquired Territories (Merger) Act, 1960.
The Constitution (Ninth Amendment) Act, 1960.
65. The Companies (Amendment) Act, 1960.
66. The Industrial Finance Corporation (Amendment) Act, 1960.

LIST OF REGULATIONS ISSUED DURING THE YEAR 1960.

1. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands (Municipal Boards) Amendment Regulation, 1960 (1 of 1960).
2. The Armed Forces (Special Powers) Continuance Regulation, 1960 (2 of 1960).
3. The North East Frontier Agency (Extension of Laws) Regulation, 1960 (3 of 1960).
4. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands Live-Stock Improvement (Amendment) Regulation, 1960 (4 of 1960).
5. The Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands Co-operative Societies Regulation, 1960 (5 of 1960).

LIST OF ORDINANCES ISSUED DURING THE YEAR 1960.

1. The Essential Services Maintenance Ordinance, 1960 (1 of 1960).

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Space Conquest

(up-to-date)

Since Russia startled the world with the launching of the First Earth Satellite on October 4, 1957, numerous space vehicles have been sent up into the sky. Forty of these were successful. Many have since burned up on re-entering the earth's atmosphere or met with another fate. But the man-made space ships listed here are still in orbit. All are American, except for the two Russian Vehicles.

DATE sent up— and expected life	NAME	WEIGHT	HIGHEST POINT	TYPE OF SATELLITE
1958				
Feb. 1 4½ years	EXPLORER I	3½ lb	1,374 m.	Discovered deadly radiation belt circling globe.
Mar. 17 100 years	VANGUARD I	3½ lb	2,139 m.	Measured earth's shape; still bleeps. (Parts of launching rocket also orbiting).
1959				
Jan. 2	LUNIK I		———	Moon probe, became sun satellite.
Feb. 17 50 years	VANGUARD II	21lb	1,791 m.	Measured earth's cloud cover. (Rocket also orbiting).
Mar. 3	PIONEER IV	13 lb	———	Moon probe, became sun satellite.
Aug. 7 2 years	EXPLORER VI	142 lb	2,900 m.	Mapped radiation belt; took TV picture of earth. (Rocket also orbiting).
Aug. 13 15 months	DISCOVERER V	300 lb	925 m.	Man-in-space capsule; should have returned to earth.
Sept. 18 150 years	VANGUARD III	100 lb	2,020 m.	Measured earth's magnetism and sun's X'rays.
Oct. 13 20 years	EXPLORER VII	91 lb	586 m.	Checked on magnetic storms; refuses to to stop bleeping when ordered. (Rocket also orbiting).
1960				
Mar. 11	PIONEER V	94 lb	———	Sun satellite; bleeped signals from 22 million miles away.

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DATE sent up—and expected life	NAME	WEIGHT	HIGHEST POINT	TYPE OF SATELLITE
Apr. 1 40 years	TIROS I	270 lb	406 m.	Weather satellite; sent back TV pictures of clouds; still bleeps. (Rocket also orbiting).
Apr. 13 2 years	TRANSIT IB	267 lb	397 m.	Navigation aid; signals to help ships, planes "fix" positions (Rocket also orbiting).
May 15 1½ years	SPUTNIK IV		363 m.	Space ship; failed to bring cabin containing dummy man back to earth.
May 24 10 years	MIDAS II	2 tons	276 m.	Military—for detecting rocket launching by sensing heat rays.
June 22 60 years	TRANSIT IIA	223 lb	566 m.	Double satellite—carries electronic clock for navigation, still bleeps. (Rocket also orbiting).
Aug. 12 1 year	ECHO	150 lb	909 m.	100 ft. diameter balloon for bouncing radio signals round the globe. (Rocket also orbiting, may stay up 4,000 years).
Oct 4 500 years	COURIER IB	500 lb	666 m.	Communications — receives, relays voice messages from ground. Still bleeps. (Rocket also orbiting).
Nov. 3 20 years	EXPLORER VIII	90	1,236 m.	Checks on radio interference. Still bleeps.
Nov. 12 2 months	DISCOVERER 17	1,400 lb	534 m.	Rocket carrier—"man-in-space" capsule brought back to earth.
Nov. 23 20 years	TIROS II	280 lb	392 m.	Second weather satellite, still bleeps. (Rocket also orbiting).
Dec. 7	DISCOVERER 18	2,100 lb	———	Rocket carrier—capsule returned to earth on December 10.

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India's Overseas Communications

Telegraph, Telephone and Radio are handled by two Departments —(1) Posts and Telegraphs inside the country and (2) by Overseas Communications Services outside the country. India was first connected with the overseas countries by cable in 1870, when Bombay-London Cable Telegraph Service was opened. Communication by radio was opened in 1927 when the Indian Radio Telegraph Company came into existence. But in 1932 the cable company and Radio Telegraph Company were merged to form India Radio and Cable Communications Co. Ltd., which operated both cable and wireless services in India. In 1947 the Central Government nationalised the service and all outside links are now maintained by the Government through overseas communications service.

The Overseas Communications Service has four gateway centres for handling international communications—Bombay, Calcutta, New Delhi and Madras.

For transmission of messages both by wireless and by cable, overseas telegraph facilities are provided via the international submarine cable and radio telegraph net-work to which India is linked. The cable chains are—(1) Bombay-Aden-Alexandria-Malta-Gibraltar-London (2) Bombay-Aden-Mombassa-Zanzibar-Sychalles and (3) Madras-Penang-Singapore-East Asia.

Direct Wireless Telegraph Service—Direct wireless telegraph services have been established between India and the following 23 countries—Afghanistan, Australia, Burma, China (Shanghai and Peking), Egypt, France, Hanoi, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Philippines, Poland, Rumania, Saigon, Switzerland, Thailand, United Kingdom, Russia, U.S.A., West Germany and Yugoslavia.

Direct Radio-Telephone Service—Direct radio telephone Services have also been established between India and the following countries—Aden, Australia, Bahrain, Burma, China, East Africa, Egypt, Ethiopia, France, Hongkong, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Malaya, Poland, Saudi Arabia, South Vietnam, Switzerland, United Kingdom, Russia and West Germany. Apart from these direct services, radio telephone services via. the international net-work are available to 53 other countries. Ships at sea also make use of the radio telephone service and about 40 ships are using this line of communication.

Radio-Photo Service—is now available between India and the following nine countries—China, France, Italy, Japan, Poland, United Kingdom, U.S.A., Russia and West Germany. In addition to this, switched radio photo-service is available via. London to 17 other countries.

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Latest Indian Statistics

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES AT WORK

(Paid up capital in crores of Rs.)

	All companies	*Paid-up capital*	*Public companies*	*Private companies*
1955 ..	29,625	9,69.6	10,056	19,569
1956 ..	29,874	10,24.2	9,575	20,299
1957 ..	29,357	10,77.6	8,810	20,547
1958 ..	28,283	13,00.1	8,266	20,017
1959 ..	27,479	15,09.8	7,760	19,719
1960 ..	26,921	15,93.1	7,306	19,615

(*Monthly Abstract of Statistics, Sept.*, 1960).

MINING LABOUR

Average daily number of workers employed

1951 ..	549,048	1954 ..	568,234	1957 ..	651,321
1952 ..	559,196	1955 ..	590,776	1958 ..	649,360
1953 ..	593,868	1956 ..	628,581		

STATE FINANCIAL CORPORATION—Liabilities and Assets

	No. of Corporations	*Total liabilities or assets.*		*No. of Corporations*	*Total liabilities or assets.*
1952-53 ..	1	8	1956-57 ..	11	14,75
1953-54 ..	5	4,03	1957-58 ..	12	18,04
1954-55 ..	7	7,10	1958-59 ..	12	23,32
1955-56 ..	12	10,70	1959-60 ..	13	26,38

(*Reserve Bank Bulletin, Sept.*, 1960).

FOREIGN TRADE

(*In lakhs of Rupees*)

	Imports (—)	Exports (+)	Balance of Trade
1951-52 ..	971,20	732.96	—238.24
1952-53 ..	701.83	577,31	—124,52
1953-54 ..	610.24	530.63	—79,61
1954-55 ..	656.42	592,51	—63,91
1955-56 ..	725.41	608,91	—116.50
1956-57 ..	848.76	619.63	—229,13
1957-58 ..	1,036.37	635.78	—400.59
1958-59 ..	799,58	569,79	—229,78
1959-60 ..	867,72	643,63	—224,09

(*Reserve Bank Bulletin, Sept.*, 1960).

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LOANS DUE FROM THE STATES

(Upto 1958-59)

	Rs. crores		*Rs. crores*
Andhra Pradesh ..	139.31	Orissa ..	123.33
Assam ..	34.99	Punjab ..	225.00
Bihar ..	109.71	Rajasthan ..	74.69
Bombay ..	174.02	Uttar Pradesh ..	171.99
Kerala ..	37.55	West Bengal ..	215.48
Madhya Pradesh ..	81.19	Jammu & Kashmir ..	27.75
Madras ..	94.78		
Mysore ..	71.39		1,581.18

OPIUM PRODUCTION

1959 ..	20,392 maunds		1957 ..	12,950	maunds
1958 ..	17,572 „		1956 ..	9,279	„

JUTE PRODUCTION

Season (July-June)	*Acreage* (000 acres)	*Crop* (000 bales)	*Yield* (*bales an acre*)
1950-51 ..	1,411	3,283	2.33
1951-52 ..	1,951	4,678	2.40
1952-53 ..	1,813	4,592	2.53
1953-54 ..	1,196	3,129	2.62
1954-55 ..	1,243	2,928	2.36
1955-56 ..	1,739	4,194	2.41
1956-57 ..	1,908	4,288	2.25
1957-58 ..	1,742	4,052	2.33
1958-59 ..	1,811	5,158	2.85
1959-60 ..	1,707	4,548	2.66
1960-61 ..	—	5,800	—

SUGAR PRODUCTION

(*In thousand Tons*)

	1958-59	1959-60		1958-59	1959-60
Uttar Pradesh ..	888	1,323	Madras ..	73	75
Bihar ..	311	325	Andhra Pradesh	120	138
Maharastra & Gujarat ..	321	394	Rest of India ..	120	138
			All India ..	1,918	2,418

BALANCE & MERCHANDISE TRADE

(*In crores of Rupees*)

1950-51	22.01	1955-56	95.40
1951-52	210.14	1956-57	219.93
1952-53	92.57	1957-58	372.27
1953-54	41.31	1958-59	275.88
1954-55	62.72		

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EXPORTS & IMPORTS TO PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

By Sea, Air and Land—(*In lakhs of Rupees*)

Exports, 1958		*Imports, 1958*	
United Kingdom	165,24	U. S. A.	161,46
U. S. A.	92,56	Germany (West)	93,95
Japan	25,77	Iran	33,07
Australia	21,37	Japan	39,66
U. S .S . R.	23,31	Italy	25,57
Ceylon	19,79	France	16,96
Germany (West)	14,70	U.S.S.R.	21,71
Canada	14,54	Belgium	16 59
Burma	7,48	Switzerland	9,68
Egypt	8,63	Australia	15,32
France	7,06	Malaya	10,70
Argentina	9,25	Saudi Arabia	19,67
Singapore	9,50	Canada	34,66
Pakistan	7,12	Pakistan	6,28
United Kingdom	168,53	Burma	45,54

INDIA'S OVERALL BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

(*Current Account—In crores of Rupees*)

	Credit	*Debit*	*Net*		*Credit*	*Debit*	*Net*
1955-56	889.9	877.6	+12.3	1958-59	827.4	1115.0	—327.6
1956-57	898.6	1210.9	—312.3	1959-60	870.2	1051.0	—180.8
1957-58	922.4	1349.4	—427.0				

(*Reserve Bank Bulletin, Sept., 1960*).

INDIA'S FOREIGN EXCHANGE RESERVE

(*In lakhs of Rupees*)

	Amount	*Variations over previous year*		*Amount*	*Variations over previous year*
1951	848,44	—53.06	1956	683.46	—127.39
1952	777.46	—70.98	1957	448,31	—235.15
1953	808.76	+31.30	1958	343,92	—104,39
1954	811,39	+2,63	1959	387,54	+43,62
1955	810.85	—54			

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STATES IN INDIA

ANDHRA PRADESH

Capital	.. Hyderabad	*Big Cities* :	
Official Language	English	Vijayawada	.. 162,198
Principal Language	.. Telegu	Guntur	.. 125,255
Population	.. 3,12,60,133	Visakhapatnam	.. 108,042
Area (sq. m.)	.. 105,677	Hyderabad	.. 1,085,722
Literacy	.. 13.12 p.c.	Warangal	.. 133,130
Density of Pop. (per sq. m.)	.. 296	Rajamundry	.. 105,276
Universities	.. Osmania, Andhra, Venkateswara	Kakinada	.. 99,951
		Eluru	.. 87,213
		Nellore	.. 81,480
		Masulipatam	.. 77,953
		Vizianagram	.. 67,104

Covering about one-fourth of the Deccan plateau, the State of Andhra Pradesh extends over an area of 105,677 square miles. It is surrounded by the States of Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Mysore and Madras. On the east is the Bay of Bengal with a sea coast of 600 miles.

Low mountains cut across by rivers, fertile river valleys and flat coastal strip make the whole topography of Andhra. The highest peak, Mahendra Giri stands only 4,920 ft. above sea level while the longest river Godavari has a total length of 870 miles. Krishna, almost as long as Godavari also flows in Andhra before falling into Bay of Bengal.

Agriculture—Andhra Pradesh is a predominantly agricultural State where more than 82 p.c. of her population depend for a living.

Forests—Forests in Andhra occupy 19 p.c. of the total area, which is higher than the Union of India (15 p.c.). The forests which cover the inaccessible parts of the Eastern Ghats, contain useful species of timber. There are huge forest areas in Srikakulam, Visakhapatnam and Godavari and Kurnool districts.

River Resources—The State is drained by the *Godavari*, *Krishna* and *Pennar* and their tributaries, and their waters have been harnessed for irrigation to some extent. The Godavari flows for 225 miles through the State before it falls into the Bay of Bengal. The remaining two-thirds depends on rain, which is both inadequate and undependable.

Cottage Industries—Andhra Pradesh is well-known for its handicrafts. The silver filigree articles of Karimnagar, the exquisite toys of Nirmal, Kondafalli and Tirupathi, bidriware and himru of Hyderabad, the carpets of Warangal and Eluru, the attractive chro-

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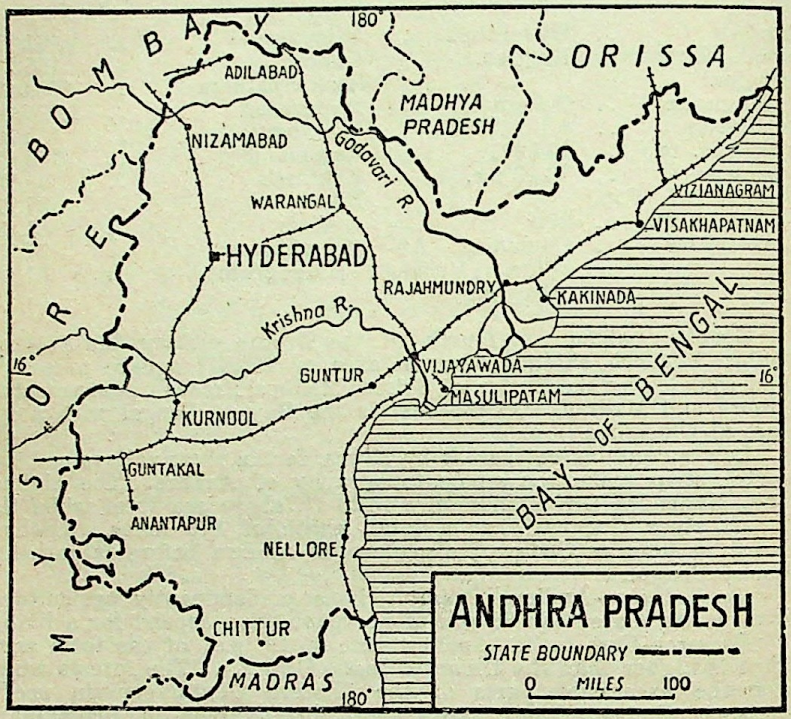
chet lace goods of Narsapur and the excellent handloom textiles are the foremost. Handicrafts of Andhra Pradesh have earned world-wide reputation.

Industry—Tobacco, sugarcane, groundnut, castor seed, cotton and jute are produced in large quantities ; Kothagudem and Tandur are coal centres, while Godavari Delta is expected to yield huge coal



deposits. The delta area of the Krishna and the Godavari contain lignite deposits, while uranium is found in Nellore district. Iron and manganese are strewn over various regions, while the Nellore district abounds in mica mines. Royalaseema and Telangana are well-known for the mineral wealth including gold and diamond. Andhra Pradesh produces large quantities of tobacco, sugarcane groundnut, castor seed, cotton, jute, hides and skins—all of which are

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useful for industrial processing and utilisation. Andhra holds the All-India record for tobacco crop and is the leading earner of our foreign exchange.

There are two paper mills in Andhra Pradesh, one is Sirur Paper Mills and the other is Andhra Paper Mills at Rajamundry, which is a Government-Pradesh. Andhra Pradesh produces large quantities of hides and skins ment concern. There are ten sugar factories now working in Andhra and tanned staff. The only major ship-building yard in India is in Visakhapatnam. The Caltex Oil Refinery is now situated at Visakhapatnam. Sericulture is a growing industry. The Sirsilk Ltd., Sirpur, is a pioneer concern producing artificial silk at the rate of about 50,000 yards per day. The State is an important tobacco-producing area. Guntur and Warrangal are main centres.

The Praga Tools Corporation is the only machine tool factory in the State. The Allwyn Metal Works is an important industry with capacity to manufacture railway wagons. There are two cement factories—Andhra. Cement, Bezwada and Krishna Cement with an installed capacity of 1·89 lakh tons. Hyderabad Asbestos Cement Products Ltd. produces nearly 70 tons asbestos sheets per day.

The prestige project of Andhra Pradesh is the *Nagarjunasagar Dam.* The excavation of the main canal on both sides is progressing up to the 50th mile. The *Bhairavanitippa Project* is almost complete, while the work on the *Tungabhadra High Level Canal* (first stage) is proceeding according to schedule.

Minerals—The mineral wealth of Andhra Pradesh is improving. The State is rich in coal, iron ore, manganese, mica, limestone, asbestos, barytes and building materials. Coal output per annum is 1·5 million tons, nearly 4 p.c. of the country's entire production. After Bihar, Andhra is the largest producer of mica. 95 per cent of India's barytes is from Andhra. Other minerals are asbestos and chromite. It is the principal supplier of coal to South India, while it contributes half of the output of asbestos in India.

Ports of Andhra—The Andhra State has a long coast-line and a number of ports. Besides the major port of Visakhapatnam, there are minor ports at Kakinada and Masulipatam and the small ports at Kalingapatnam, Bhimunipatam, Vadarevu, Narsapur and Kandaleru. Ports like Kakinada and Masulipatam are favourably situated in having road, rail and canal communications.

Districts of Andhra Pradesh—Andhra Pradesh is spread over 20 districts, of these, the seven are coastal districts known as *Northern Circars,* four are known as *ceded districts.* The nine districts in *Telangana* area formerly formed part of the Nizam's Dominion. The districts are—Srikakulam, Adilabad, Nizamabad, Medak, Karimnagar, Warangal, Nalgonda. Khammam, Visakhapatnam, East Godavari, West Godavari, Krishna, Guntur, Nellore, Chittoor, Cuddapah, Anantapur, Kurnool, Hyderabad, Mahabubnagar.

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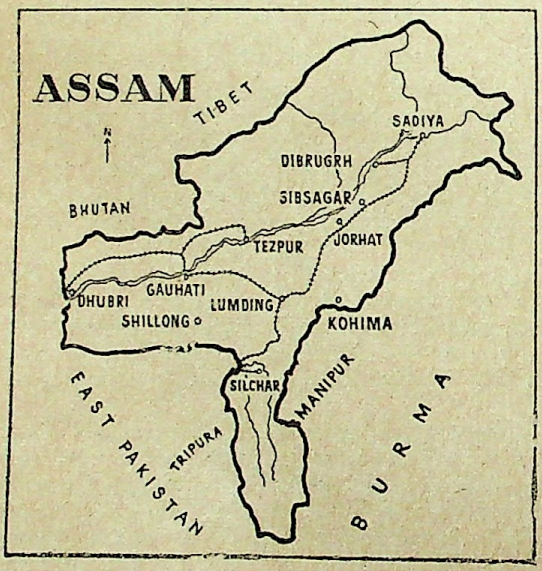
ASSAM

Capital	.. Shillong	Literacy	.. 18.07 p.c.
Population	.. 90,43,707	Density of Pop.	106 per sq. m.
Area (sq. m.)	.. 85,062 (including NEFA).	University	.. Gauhati
Principal Languages	.. Assamese & Bengali	*Big Towns*	
Official Language	Assamese	Shillong	 53,756
		Gauhati	 43,615
		Dibrugarh	 37,991
		Silchar	 34,059
		Nowgong	 28,257

This extreme north-eastern frontier State is almost bottled up between Bhutan and Tibet on the north, Burma on the east and East Pakistan on the west, areas of Manipur on the east and Cooch Bihar and Tripura on the west thrown in, except for a narrow passage bordering along and through Cooch Bihar. The hills that skirt the State are the Garo, the United Khasi-Jaintia, the Mikir, the North Cachar, the Lushai (now officially known as Mizo) and the Naga Hills. The 25 Khasi Hill States were merged with Assam on 26th January, 1950 to be known as Khasi-Jaintia Hill district and have added 6,027 sq. miles area. With the Khasi States, Assam continues to be governed through the Governor of Assam. Assam occupies strategically important position after partition of India. Assam is no longer a mere part of India, but she has become the main frontier, the veritable sentinel of the Indian Union. This State has the largest number of Tribal people of the Union, constituting about 34 p.c. of the State's population. There are two strategic frontier regions in Assam which are both, though under the Governor of Assam, are excluded from the administrative control of



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Assam Government. The one is *North-East Frontier Agency* (NEFA) and the other is *Naga Hills-Tuensang Area.* These two regions are ruled by the Governor of Assam as the Agent of the President of India. A New State has been formed in 1961 known as *Nagaland,* also under the administrative control of the Governor of Assam who acts as the Agent of the President of India in place of Naga Hills-Tuensang Area.

Criss-crossed and skirted by hill ranges and forests, with the lower Himalayan ranges overlooking in the north, the territory has an abundant rainfall. Except for the Western Ghats where the average rainfall is about the same, Assam has the highest rainfall in the whole of India. The averages in different parts of the State vary from about 43 inches in the Nowgong plains to about 500 inches at Cherrapunji. This makes agriculture and plantation comparatively easy and worthwhile for the people and planters, rice and tea being the most important crops. In tea particularly, she holds about half the acreage of the Indian Union. Sugarcane, cotton, jute, tobacco, rape and mustard and silk are also grown in small quantities.

Forests occupy about 40 p.c. of the area of the State. The forests of Assam have been in recent years sustaining a production of about 200,000 plywood chest annually for tea. The forests also produce very large quantities of bamboo for paper production. Assam is the biggest producer of cane in India. There are about 70 or more varieties of timber, of which 10 or 12 varieties are now generally used.

Minerals—The distinction of being the only place in India where mineral oil has so far been produced, belongs to Assam. To Digboi is now added the new oilfields at Nahorkatiya and Hugrijan. There occur other minerals in Assam, the important among them being coal, limestone, sillimanite, ceramic materials, ect.

Hydro-Electric Power—Assam is deficient in power development, but the first big power development known as *Umtru Hydro Electric Project* came into operation in 1957 under Colombo Plan with the monetary assistance of Canada, which is expected to produce 7,500 Kilowatt for the purpose of supplying electrical power to the city of Gauhati. The Umtru Power House is at a distance of about 19 miles south of Gauhati on the southern slopes of the United Khasi and Jaintia Hills.

Climate—The climate of Assam is marked by coolness and extreme humidity. The heavy and long-continued rain keeps the temperature comparatively moderate. Assam enjoys an unusually long and bracing cold weather. The spell of hot weather is very short.

Assam's Fauna—Assam is fortunate in possessing probably the richest fauna of any part of Asia and outside Africa. The most important animal from the point of view of its rarity and interest is the great Indian single-horned rhinoceros. Assam rhino has the distinction of being the largest rhino in existence today. Other animals such as the elephant, wild buffalo,

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bison, swamp deer, rare birds like hornbill, king cobra, and other kinds of reptiles also abound. Bengal tigers and leopards are there too. The largest single population of elephants, outside possibly Burma, is found in Assam. There are in Assam today six wild life sanctuaries, containing varieties of animals peculiar to this State.

Language—According to the 1951 census, 40 per cent of the people speak Assamese language and about 24 per cent Bengali. The other languages spoken in Assam are Hindi, Oriya, Mundari, Nepali and a great variety of languages and dialects known as Tibeto-Burman languages. The number of people speaking main languages are : Assamese—4,972,493 ; Bengali—1,719,155 ; Hindi—335,688.

Cottage Industries—Second only to agriculture, weaving and sericulture industry are by far the largest and oldest single main, as well as subsidiary, cottage industries in Assam. Though Assam is famous for her non-mulberry silks of Eri and Muga, producing 65 p.c. of the entire quantity of non-mulberry silk in India, production of mulberry silk also is gradually increasing. The golden colour muga yarn, besides being used for fabric, is also used for embroidery work and fishing lines. The creamy coloured Eri fabric is mainly used as wrappers, suitings and shirtings. Among other cottage industries are ivory, bamboo and cane-work, bell metal work and bee-keeping.

Handloom weaving is the largest and the most important cottage industries of Assam.

Agriculture—The economic pattern of Assam is agriculture ; out of the total population, an overwhelming majority of 72% depend on agriculture. The main agricultural crops of the State are—rice, rape, mustard, sugarcane, potato, pulses, maize and oranges. The main cash crops are —tea, jute, cotton and tobacco. *Jhum* cultivation is carried on in the hill districts. The trees and shrubs on hill slopes selected every year are cut down and burnt and then crops grown on the bald patches. The area is then abandoned for a number of years so that trees may grow again and fertility recouped.

Industries—The main industry of Assam is tea industry. It occupies not only an important place in the economy of the State and the country but also a valuable earner of foreign exchange. There are nearly 965 tea gardens in Assam alone. The production of tea is of the order of 350 to 360 million lb., out of the country's total production of 600-650 million lb. Assam has made vast stride in jute cultivation. The distinction of being the only place where oil is produced in India belongs to Assam. The Digboi field yields about 8 p.c. of the country's requirements of crude oil. The new Nahorkatiya field gives much promise to produce about half the country's requirements. Coal is worked in Ledo, Nazeia and Cherrapunji, but the output is not high. The other industries of Assam are match-making, plywood manufacturing, rice and oil milling.

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The Districts of Assam (*with headquarters in brackets*)—Goalpara (Dhubri), Kamrup (Gauhati), Darrang (Tezpur), Nowgong (Nowgong), Sibsagar (Jorhat), Lakhimpur (Dibrugarh), Cachar (Silchar), Garo Hills (Tura), United Khasi and Jaintia Hills (Shillong), United Mikir & North Cachar Hills (Diphu) and Mizo Hills (Aijal).

North-East Frontier Agency (NEFA)

Area .. 32,969 sq. m. Head Quarters .. Shillong.

Consisting of an area of 32,969 square miles, this Agency is situated on the north-east corner of India bordering Burma, China, Tibet and Bhutan. The population consists of about 600,000 tribesmen, divided into some 40 tribal groups of Indo-Mongoloid origin.

Constitutionally, it is a part of Assam and is administered by the Governor of Assam, acting as the agent of the President. The Governor is assisted by an Adviser in Shillong. But in recognition of its special features, the governance of this area is the responsibility of the Central Government. The whole of NEFA is divided into the following five Administrative Divisions, each under a political officer—Siang Frontier Division, Kameng Frontier Division, Lohit Frontier Division, Subansiri Frontier Division, Tirap Frontier Division.

The people are divided into a number of tribes, sub-tribes and classes, which have maintained independent and isolated existence over many years. Ethnically, these people belong to two main groups—Tibeto-Mongolian and Thai-Chinese. All NEFA tribes other than Khamtis are akin, belonging to the Thai ethnic group, and speak the dialects of the Tibeto-Burman family tribes. Broadly, the tribes of the Tibeto-Burman group belong to two sub-groups—Aka-Abor and Kachin. The headquarters of the Agency is Shillong.

The leading tribes are Monpas, Tagins, Gallongs, Opatanis, Monbas, Palibos, Ramos, Bokars, Boris, Mishmis. All these tribes with very rare exceptions have Councils of Elders which exercise temporal authority. Most of the communities inhabiting the Agency owe allegiance to animistic or quasi-animistic tribal faiths.

Nagaland

The President promulgated the *Nagaland* (*Transitional Provisions*) *Regulation* on 24th January, 1961 to bring into operation a new administrative set-up for Nagaland.

The Regulation will come into force on a date to be specified by the Government.

It provides for the setting up of a forty-five-member elected "Interim Body", to serve as the Advisory Council to the Governor. The members will be elected from the tribes in Nagaland—the area comprising Naga Hills and Tuensang area.

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The Governor, who is also Governor of Assam, is expected to inaugurate the first meeting of the "Interim Body", whose members have already been elected on February 15, 1960.

The Regulation lays down the transitional arrangement for Nagaland in accordance with the agreement between the Naga Peoples Convention and the Government of India concluded on July 30, 1960. This arrangement will prepare the ground for the setting up of a separate Nagaland State.

At present the day-to-day administration of Nagaland is carried on by the Commissioner and Secretariat functions are performed by the Adviser to the Governor of Assam.

The Interim Body provided for in the Regulation is now vested with most of these functions. It is empowered to discuss and make recommendations to the Executive Council (also provided for) on—(a) matters of administration involving general policy and schemes of development; (b) any other matters referred to it by the Executive Council; provided that the Interim Body shall not discuss any matter exclusively affecting, or relating to, the Tuensang district except with the consent of all the members of that district. It is also empowered to make recommendations to the Executive Council "in regard to the constitution and composition of the legislative assembly of the State of Nagaland.

The manner in which members thereof shall be chosen and all matters connected therewith or incidental thereto."

The Executive Council provided for by the regulation would consist of "such members of the Interim Body not exceeding five in number, as the Governor may appoint after obtaining recommendations of that body."

The regulation says that the Council "shall, as soon as may be, choose a member of the Council" to be its Chairman.

The Regulation also lays down that each village should have a village council and each tribe a Tribal Council. These would come into being on a date to be fixed by the Commissioner.

The Interim Body according to the Regulation, "shall continue for a period of three years from the date appointed for its first meeting."

WEST BENGAL

Capital	.. Calcutta	*Big Cities:*	
Population	.. 2,63,02,386	Calcutta (greater)	.. 45,78,071
Area (sq. m.)	.. 34,945	Howrah ..	.. 433,630
Literacy	.. 24·55 p.c.	Tollygunj ..	.. 149,817
Density of Pop.	.. 776 per sq. m.	Bhatpara ..	.. 134,916
Language	.. Bengali	Kharagpur ..	.. 129,636
Universities	.. Calcutta, Visva-Bharati, Jadavpur, Burdwan	Garden Reach	.. 109,160
		Behala ..	.. 104,055
		Berhampur ..	.. 55,613

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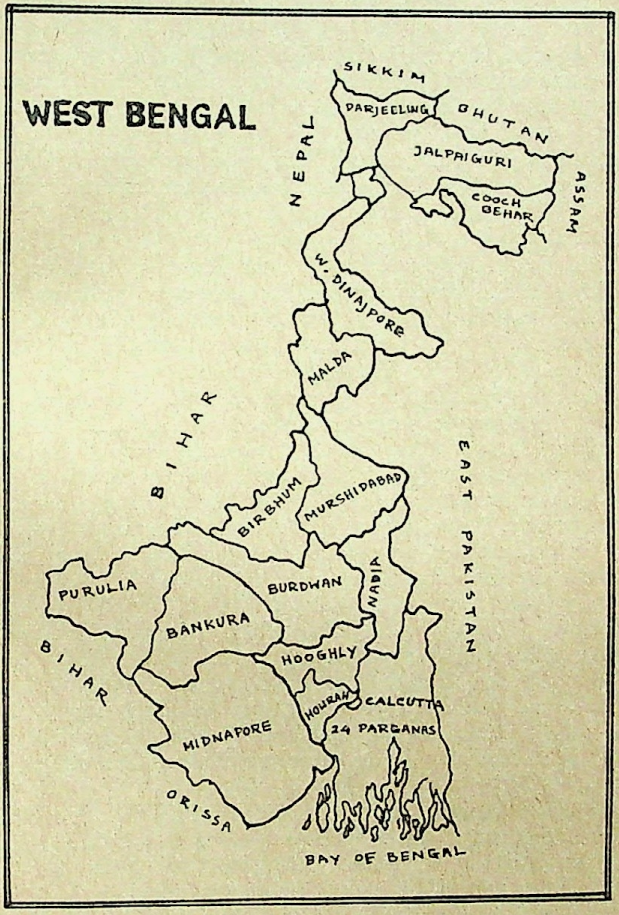
The State of West Bengal came into existence on August 15, 1947, as part of a larger political settlement. What had been Bengal was cut in twain : one being West Bengal, a State in the Republic of India and the other, Eastern Pakistan, a part of the Republic of Pakistan. State of Cooch Bihar was merged with West Bengal on January 1, 1950 and also Chandarnagore, on October 2, 1954.



West Bengal, a truncated and dismembered State as the result of Partition, emerged in 1956 under the States Reorganisation Act of 1956, as a

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somewhat bigger State with an essential link between the two hitherto isolated northern and southern segments. The much-desired link between Darjeeling and the rest of the State has been forged.

Bound on the east by Eastern Pakistan and Assam, on the south by the Bay of Bengal, on the west by Bihar and Orissa and on the north by Nepal and Bhutan, the administrative unit of West Bengal has an area of 34,945 sq. miles with a population of 26·16 million and an annual revenue of Rs. 60·69 crores.

In its physical characteristics, West Bengal is a level expanse intersected by numerous rivers. Except for the mountains of Darjeeling and the Sinchula hills of Jalpaiguri, there is hardly an undulation in this densely populated alluvial plain.

Bhagirathi is the only channel left to West Bengal, which receives waters from the Ganges. This channel is of vital importance not only to the State of West Bengal but also to the whole of India, as on its bank stands Calcutta, the largest port of India.

The chief rivers of West Bengal are : the Hooghly, Damodar, Rupnarain and the Tista. Moist winds from the Bay of Bengal make the climate of the State highly humid, specially in the rainy season, but in the cold weather, from September to February, the entire State is exceedingly pleasant.

This is one of the most densely populated States of the Indian Union, with 776 persons per sq. mile as per 1951 census. The density is highest in Calcutta (78,900 people per sq. mile) and lowest in Darjeeling district.

Agriculture—In agriculture which gives occupation to the majority of the people, she has the third largest area under rice in the Union, the second in tea and the first in jute ; some amount of gram, barley, linseed, mustard, and rape, sugarcane, maize, cotton, tobacco and other crops are also grown here. Of the total cropped area, 88 p.c. is utilised for growing rice. After rice, jute is the most important crop and accounts for 10 p.c. of total cropped area of Bengal. Tea plantations cover an area of 170,264 acres and it lies in the districts of Jalpaiguri and Darjeeling. The chief products of the State are rice, oilseeds, sugarcane, sugar, tobacco, jute, silk, tea and coal.

Forest—Forest area of West Bengal is 5,256 sq. miles, which lies chiefly in the districts of Darjeeling, Cooch Bihar, 24 Parganas (Sundarbans), Midnapore, Nadia, Murshidabad, Bankura, Hooghly, Burdwan, Birbhum, Malda and West Dinajpur. The principal products are timber, firewood and charcoal.

Industry—West Bengal leads over all others in the field of industry. Twenty-three per cent of all factories registered in the Indian Union are located in West Bengal. At present West Bengal has 90 jute mills, employing over 310,000 people. The capital invested in the trade is about Rs. 48 crores. Bengal accounts for one-fourth of all India's coal production. There are 32 cotton mills in the State located within 16 miles of Calcutta. West Bengal has also the largest number of paper mills of any State in India.

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West Bengal has the largest engineering industry in India, representing approximately 15 p.c. of the total all-India output.

Admittedly, the most important of the new industrial enterprises set up in West Bengal is the motor factory of Hindustan Motors, Uttarpara. Aluminium industry also holds a leading place in West Bengal. Both the rolling mills of the country are located in the State—Indian Aluminium Company's Works at Belur and the Aluminium Corporation's plant in Jaykaynagar near Asansol. With the transfer of Purulia district of Manbhum and a small portion of Purnea, West Bengal gains lac processing centres at Jhalda and Balarampur, the monopoly of tasser silk around Raghunathpur and jute fields in Purnea. The two of the big steel plants in India are located in West Bengal, as also the coke plant of the West Bengal Government. The Durgapur Steel plant, a major industrial project in West Bengal, will be able to produce 790,000 tons of steel by the end of 1960-61.

River Valley Projects—West Bengal has two principal river valley projects for the improvement of agricultural economy, improved industrialisation. The first is *Mayurakshi Reservoir Project.* The work was begun in 1948. The river Mayurakshi originates from the uplands of Santhal Parganas in Bihar and falls into Bhagirathi after a course of 150 miles. At Massanjore in Santhal Parganas, the river flows through a narrow valley—an ideal site for a dam. The turbulent Mayurakshi sprawling over an area of 1,400 sq. miles through the districts of Birbhum, Murshidabad, Burdwan and Santhal Parganas, is controlled by a dam at Massanjore. The water released by the completed project flows through 900 miles of canals and is expected to irrigate 630,000 acres from June to October and 170,000 acres from November to May. This will convert a single-crop area of poor yield into a double-crop area of higher yield. Generating plant has been installed for generation of 4,000 k.w. of electrical power. The Mayurakshi Dam and three subsidiary barrages and the whole canal system have been completed.

Kangsabati Reservoir Project in the Midnapur-Bankura district is a Second Plan Project and a start has already been made. The scheme consists of the construction of two major earth dams, each of the size of the Maithon Dam of the D. V. C., complementary to each other. The reservoir created by the two dams will ultimately be connected together and the surplus discharge will be passed through a common spillway to be constructed by cutting a saddle in the hills on the left bank.

Another principal river valley project is *Damodar Valley Project* undertaken jointly by West Bengal and Bihar with the help of the Central Government. This is a multi-purpose project which comprises eight storage chains with hydro-electric stations, two auxiliary plants with an installed capacity of 240,000 k.w. and an additional thermal power station at Bokharo with an installed capacity of 200,000 k.w. The project will ultimately control the flooding of the Damodar which is notorious for its vagaries and

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destructiveness. Other important benefits will be irrigation, ample electric power and chief water transport.

Cottage Industries—West Bengal's cottage industry is also considerable, the most important of which is cotton handloom industry. This industry provides employment to the highest number of people in West Bengal. Next in importance is silk industry. Other notable industries of West Bengal are—leather industries, brass and bellmetal industry, ferrous industries, agricultural implements and cutlery, ceramic industries, oil and soap industries, woodworking, fibre industry, fire making, etc. The value of all the cottage industry products, including those of textile industries, is about Rs. 45 crores roughly.

Communications—West Bengal has 2,462 miles of metalled and 2,652 miles of unmetalled roads. There are routes of National Highways falling within West Bengal: Calcutta-Delhi National Highway, Calcutta-Bombay-Madras National Highway, Bihar-Assam National Highway, Calcutta-Siliguri National Highway. Siliguri-Gangtok National Highway and Calcutta-Bongaon National Highway. In addition to this, Calcutta's airport, Dum Dum, is the largest in India. On an average, take-offs and touch-down total 85 a day with passengers over 700.

Population—Regarding population, Hindus form 78·44 and Muslims 19·85 per cent of the total population. Unlike Bombay or Madras, only one language dominates in the State. The number of persons speaking Bengali as their mother tongue are 84·62 p.c. of the total population. The number of persons speaking Bengali as a subsidiary language are 3·4 p.c. of the total population. The literacy according to 1951 census of West Bengal is 24·55 per cent—34·7 p.c. of the total male population and 12·7 p.c. of the total female population. Percentage of literacy of Calcutta is 53·12. In 1951, there were 114 towns. There are seven cities in West Bengal, each with a population of over 100,000 persons. They are Calcutta, Howrah, Tollyganj, Bhatpara, Kharagpur, Garden Reach, South Suburbs (Behala).

Scheduled Tribes—In Bengal, after the reorganisation of State, we have as many as 41 tribes with a total population of 1,517,000, such as Santhals, Oraons, Mundas, Koras, Hos, Bhumijs, Bhutias, Chakmas, Hajangs, Lepchas, Asurs, Baigas, Paharis, etc. These people are distributed over different districts in varying numbers, the highest concentrations being in Purulia. Midnapur and Jalpaiguri are second and third on the list. Then follow Bankura and Burdwan. The dominant tribe is, of course, the Santhal, followed thereby the Oraon and the Munda.

Districts of West Bengal—There are two Divisions in the State, *Burdwan and Presidency Divisions,* divided into following districts: The *districts of the Burdwan Division with headquarters in brackets*—Bankura (Bankura), Birbhum (Suri), Burdwan (Burdwan), Hooghly (Chinsura), Howrah (Howrah), Midnapore (Midnapore), Purulia (Purulia). *The districts of the Presidency Division with headquarters in brackets*—Calcutta

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(Calcutta), Cooch-Bihar (Cooch-Bihar), Darjeeling (Darjeeling), West Dinajpur (Balurghat), Jalpaiguri (Jalpaiguri), Malda (English Bazar), Murshidabad (Berhampore), Nadia (Krishnanagar), 24 Parganas (Alipore).

BIHAR

Capital	.. Patna	*Big Cities :*	
Population	.. 38,783,778	Patna	.. 283,479
Official Language	.. Hindi	Jamshedpur	.. 218,162
Area (sq. m.)	.. 67,071	Gaya	.. 133,700
Density of Pop.	.. 578 per sq. m.	Bhagalpur	.. 114,530
Literacy	.. 12·15 p.c.	Ranchi	.. 106,849
Universities	.. Bihar, Patna	Darbhanga	.. 84,816
		Muzaffarpur	.. 73,594

Boundary—Bihar is bounded on the north by the territory of Nepal and the Darjeeling district of West Bengal, on the east by West Bengal, on the south by Orissa and on the west by Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh.

The Ganges cuts Bihar into two distinct parts—North and South Bihar —Mithila and Magadha of yore. The economies of these two parts, however, are dependant upon each other. The North is exclusively an agricultural area, whereas the southern part abounds in all kinds of minerals and raw materials offering enormous possibilities of large scale industrial development. The *Ganga Bridge* at Mokamah which was opened on the 1st May, 1959 unites industry with agriculture has ushered a revolution in North Bihar. The site of the Bridge is at 1,048 miles from the source of the Ganges. The length of the Bridge is 6,078 ft. The Bridge consists of 14 main spans of 403·42 ft. and shore spans, two on either flank of 109 ft. each.

Literacy :—The population of literate persons in Bihar are 4,921,634 (1951 census)—41,72,890 males and 7,48,744 females. Thus the percentage of literacy in the States as a whole is 12·15.

Agriculture :—Bihar is essentially an agricultural State. Over 82 per cent of its population depend wholly on agriculture ; only about 7·8 per cent are engaged in mining and industry.

Bihar is one of the richest and most fertile agricultural tracts in the whole of India, and produces almost every crop cultivated in the plains of India. The chief crops of this area are paddy, sugarcane, maize, wheat, barley, rahar, jute, tobacco, chilly, potato, oilseeds, pea, khesari, etc. Formerly, there was an extensive indigo plantation also, till synthetic indigo monopolised the market. Now indigo has been completely replaced by sugarcane and rabi crops.

South Bihar is not so fertile as North Bihar. The chief crops of this area are paddy, maize, jowar, rahar, sugarcane, tobacco, wheat, chilly, peas,

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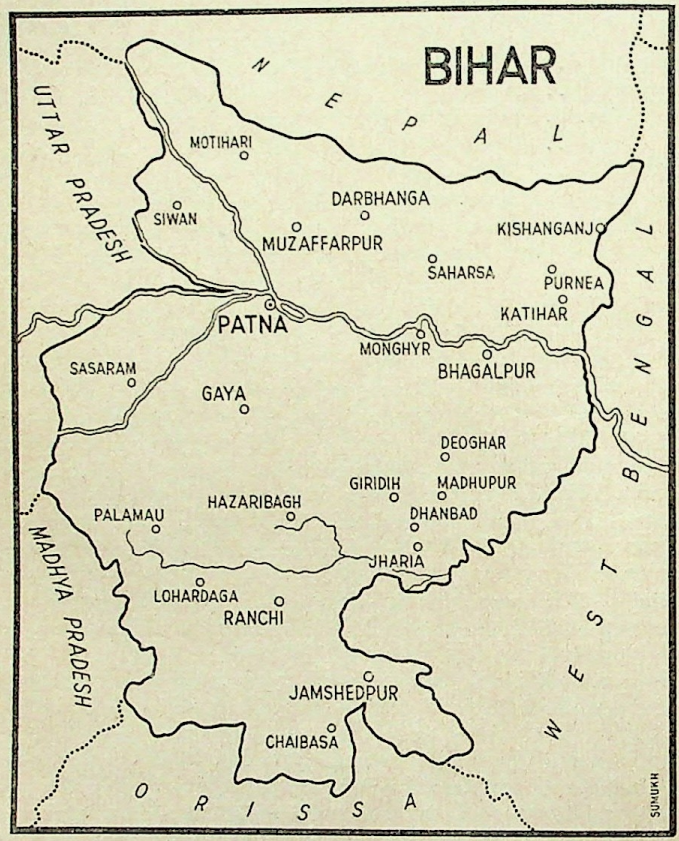
mustard, potatoes and other rabi crops. Rice is by far the most important of the crops, the area under it is nearly 50 p.c. of the cultivated area. Among the non-food crops mention should be made of sugarcane, jute, chillies and tobacco. After Uttar Pradesh, the most important area of white sugar in India is Bihar. The important sugar-cane districts are



Champaran, Saran, Darbhanga and Muzaffarpur. Tobacco is grown in Monghyr, Purnea and Darbhanga. Next to Andhra Pradesh, Bihar enjoys the distinction of being the second largest tobacco producing State in India.

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Forests :—The total area of both Government and private protected forests is 1,32,287 sq. miles, i.e., nearly 19 per cent of the area of the State. It is thus still short of about 1 per cent to meet the minimum requirement of the State. Bihar forests are a valuable source of supply of timber, bamboos, grass, lac, gum, resins, tanning materials, Kendu leaves (for bidis) and large variety of medicinal herbs. Bihar forests contain various kinds of wild life. A National Park has been developed in Hazaribagh.

Minerals :—Bihar ranks first among the States of India in mineral production. A large number of minerals are found in the State of which coal, copper ore, iron ore, manganese ore, mica and limestone are the most important and make up more than 98 p.c. of the total production. All the copper ore, more than half of the coal and mica and about 40 p.c. of the iron ore produced in India come from Bihar. The entire Indian output of bentonite comes from near Tinpahar in Santhal Parganas district. Almost all the kyanite production comes from Kharsawan in Singhbhum district. The most important coalfields in Bihar are Bokaro-Ramgarh-Karanpura areas. Thana, Giridih and Daltanganj are other coal-producing areas in the State. Iron ore deposits occur in South Singhbhum and extend into Orissa. The ore is of the highest quality. India has almost a monopoly of mica as she supplies 80 p.c. of the world requirement of mica—out of which Bihar's contribution is of the order of 66 p.c. The Bihar mica belt runs through four districts of Gaya, Hazaribagh, Monghyr and Bhagalpur. Bulk of the production of copper ore in India comes at present from Singhbhum which has the largest known copper deposits in the country. It is being worked at Mosaboni and Maubhandar near Ghatsila. Bauxite occurs on the plateau of Ranchi and Palamau. Extensive deposits of limestone are found in the districts of Sahabad, Palamau, Hazaribagh, Dhanbad and Singhbhum. China clay occurs mainly in Singhbhum, Bhagalpur, Santhal Parganas and Dhanbad. Bihar is the largest producer of China clay in India. Kyanite occurs in Bihar in Singhbhum and Manbhum along the copper belt. Bihar is the principal producer of kyanite in India. Chromite is workel in Singhbhum. Bihar raises about 24 per cent of the value of India's production of chromite. Ample resources of pyrite, which is one of the important sources of sulphur, has been found in the Sasaram sub-division of the Sahabad district. Apatites occur in considerable quantities in Singhbhum.

Aboriginal Tribes of Bihar :—Bihar contains the largest tribal population in India, next to Madhya Pradesh. They constitute exactly 10 p.c. of the total population and are concentrated in the Ranchi, Singhbhum and Santhal Parganas districts. There are altogether 29 scheduled tribes. Linguistically these tribes belong to two families of language, viz., the 'Austric' and the 'Dravidian.' Amongst the scheduled tribes the Oraons, the Sauria and the Mal Pahariyas speak the Dravidian family of language and the rest speak the 'Austric' or the Munda group of language. The

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most important tribes in this State are the Oraons, Mundas, Santhals, Hos, Kharias and the Pahariyas. The important minor tribes are Asurs, Birhor, Pahariya, Binjhia, Birjia and Korwa. The majority of the people of Chotanagpur are tribals consisting of two main groups, the Mundas and the Oraons. The former belonging to the Austro-Asiatic family, the Oraons, on the otherhand, belong to the Dravidian family.

Industries:—The most important of the major industries situated in Bihar are the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur and its satellite industries. In fact, Jamshedpur has grown into a base of heavy metal industries, and may well be called the Shefield of India. Bihar produces more than 78 per cent of the total pig iron, and 87 per cent of the total steel produced in India. The iron deposits of Noamundi, Gua and Buda Bene in Singhbhum supply about 54 per cent of the total consumption of the Tata Iron and Steel Company and the Indian Iron and Steel Company. The Tinplate Company of India situated at Jamshedpur, is the only factory in Bihar manufacturing *tinplate*. The Indian Steel and Wire Products Ltd. at Jamshedpur are engaged in manufacturing *galvanised wires and wire nails*, etc., on a large scale. *Electrical wires and cables* are manrfactured on modern lines by the Indian Cable Company at Jamshedpur. The 23-crore giant Fertilizer Factory at Sindhri, designed to produce annually 3,50,000 tons of ammonium sulphate, is the first major industrial enterprise of the Union Government and is perhaps the biggest fertilizer factory in the East. *Tata Engineering and Locomotive Co., Ltd.* (Jamshedpur) manufacture locomotives and other engineering products. Out of the thirty cement factories in India, five are located in Bihar. Hume pipes and other cement concrete products are manufactured by the Indian Hume Pipe Co., Ltd. at Jamshedpur and Patna. *Rohtas Industries* situated in the Dalmianagar is today the largest producing centre in the country of cement and paper and paper boards. The following are the important new ventures—(1) a heavy machine building plant with its foundry forge component at Hatia (Ranchi), (2) an insulator factory at Samlong (Ranchi), (3) an oil refinery and as proper house at Barauni and (4) a supersulphate factory at Sindhri.

The Indian Aluminium Company at Muri (Ranchi) are engaged in manufacturing aluminium powder from bauxite, mined near Lohardaga in Ranchi district. Bihar produces 40 per cent of the total production of lac in India.

Silk Industry is a very important cottage industry of Bihar. Mulberry silk worms are reared, which produce variety of silk. Eri silk worm-rearing is also an important industry in Bihar. Besides mulberry and eri, Bihar produces largest yardage of tassar silk in India, which is produced in the jungles of Chotanagpur.

The sugar industry occupies an important place in the rural economy of the State. About 4 lakh cane-growers and about 10 thousand workers

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find employment in this industry. After Uttar Pradesh, Bihar is the most important white sugar area in India.

The Districts of Bihar—Bhagalpur, Champaran, Darbhanga, Dhanbad, Gaya, Hazaribagh, Monghyr, Muzaffarpur, Palamau, Patna, Purnea, Ranchi, Saharsa, Santhal Parganas, Saran, Sahabad, Singhbhum.

MADHYA PRADESH

Capital ..	Bhopal	Universities ..	Sagar, Jabalpur, Vikram
Summer Capital	Panchmahri		
Population ..	26,071,637	Official Language ..	Hindi
Area (sq. m.) ..	171,201	*Big Cities*:	
Literacy ..	16.22 p.c.	Bhopal	102,333
Density per sq. m.	152	Gwalior	241,577
Literary ..	9.9 p.c.	Ujjain	129,817
Mean elevation ..	1,600 ft. above sea level	Indore	310,859
		Jabalpur	256,998
Forest area ..	30,741 sq. m.	Sagar	239,993

Madhya Pradesh is true to its name and lies in the centre of India. In fact the geographical centre of India has been located at Sihora near Jabalpur. Girdled by six States, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Andhra, Maharashtra and Rajasthan, it lays claim to be the heart of India. The State is now the biggest in India. It has the mighty river system of Narmada, Tapti, Mahanadi, Chambal, Betwa and Wainganga which can irrigate millions of acres and produce cheap electricity. Except for the valleys of the Narmada and the Tapti, Madhya Pradesh consists of a plateau with a mean elevation of 1,600 ft. above sea level, interpersed with the mountains of the Vindyas and the Satpura ranges and the Chhatisgarh plains to the east. Average rainfall is different in the different regions of the State, ranging from 30 to 60 inches. The climate is extreme in the North, temperate and breezy in the plateau and generally hot and humid in the eastern and southern plains.

Agriculture—More than 56 per cent of the area is under cultivation. The main crops of the State are jawar, wheat, rice, gram and sugarcane. The rich black soil of the Malwa plateau grows cotton mainly for the textile mills of Indore, Ujjain aind Gwalior.

Forests—Twenty-nine per cent of the State's area is covered by forests. This is the largest forest area in India in proportion to the total area of the State, the second largest next only to Assam. The chief trees are saj, dhaora, tendu, mahua, bamboo, teak, sal, palas, babul, salai, anjan and harra. The largest products of the best quality teak in India come from these forests.

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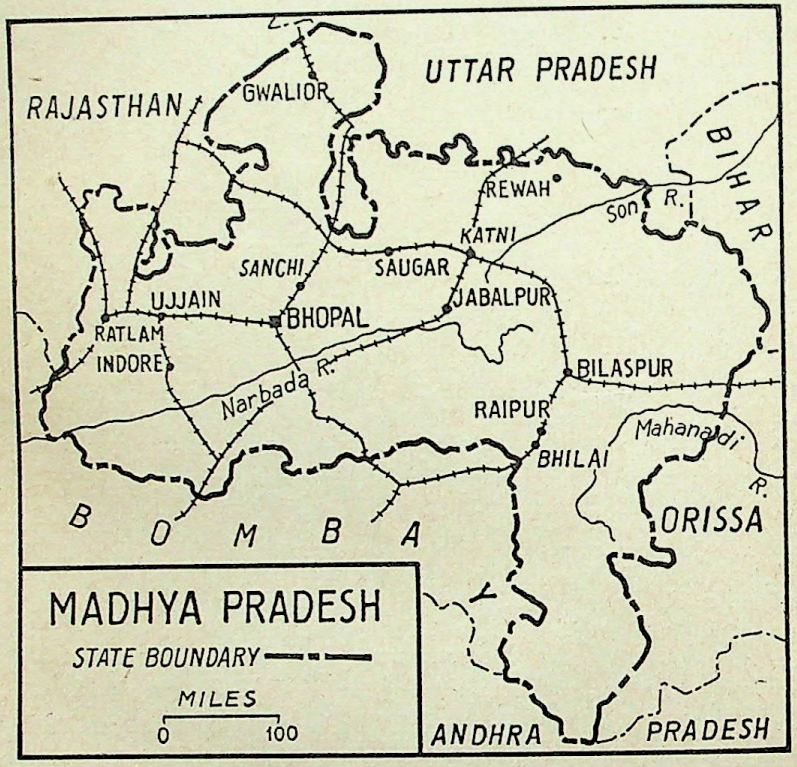
These forests provide valuable raw materials to various industries, including a good number of cottage industries like paper, lac, paints and varnishes, bidi, soap, etc.

Animals—Madhya Pradesh is rich in wild games. It contains finest herds of spotted deer (chital) in the country. Other varieties are hog deer, swamp deer and barking deer. The Nilgai or blue bull also abounds.



Bison is found in fair number in eastern Madhya Pradesh. Finest Indian buffalo is found in small number in south-eastern parts of Madhya Pradesh. The forests of Central India, particularly around Mandu and Mandla, are full of panthers and tigers.

Minerals—Mineral wealth of the State is varied as well as extensive

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and the State contains extensive belts of mineral deposits. Key minerals like coal, iron, bauxite, manganese ore, limestone, clay, steatite, marble, red and yellow ochres, graphite, mica, copper, etc., which are at present being exploited from about 200 miles, spread over the State. Coal, one of the most important of the minerals of the State is available in Surguja, Raigarh, Bilaspur, Chhindwara, Shahdol, Sidhi, Hosangabad and Betul districts. The Kobra coal mines which are now being opened up jointly by the Government of India and the State Government are expected to produce 4 million tons of coal annually, which will make up about 7 p.c. of the total coal production of India. The resources of iron ore deposits in the State are estimated at 1,580 million tons. They are mainly confined to Drug, Bastar, Jabalpur, Chhatarpur and Hosangabad districts. With the setting up of a million ton steel plant at Bhilai which has started production, the first real recognition of the resources of Madhya Pradesh has begun. Manganese which is vital to the steel industry is found mainly in Balaghat, Chindwara, Seoni and Jhabua districts. Madhya Pradesh contributes nearly 65 p.c. of the total production of the ore in India, which in turn ranks next to Russia. Large reserves of bauxite, about 200 million tons, occur in the districts of Shahdol, Bilaspur, Mandla, Jabalpur, Raigarh, Surguja and Balaghat. Limestone, an essential ingrediant in the manufacture of cement, is found extensively in the plateau. The diamond mines of the Vindya Pradesh produce 90 per cent of India's diamonds. The diamond mines at Panna are shortly to be mechanised on the advice of the Russian experts.

Industries—As for industries, the State can boast of having the first news-print mill in India. Costing over Rs. 6 crores and estimated to produce hundred tons a day, Nepa Mills expect to meet one-third of the country's news-print requirements. Biggest cement factory in the country is located at Kymore near Katni in this State. It has cotton and textile mills, rayon and artificial silk factories, potteries, sugar mills, cement factories and heavy electricals. A million ton steel plant has been erected at Bhilai. Gwalior specialises in the manufacture of attractive pottery and carpets. Parts of Madhya Pradesh are well-known for traditional village and home crafts, such as chanderi sari, leather, toys, cloth, paper and clay toys, pottery, grass mats, etc. Handloom industry, of course, takes the pride of place. Blankets are woven in Mandsaur and carpets at Gwalior. Bhopal makes handbags with gold and silver thread embroidery. Brass work is done in Balaghat and Chhindwara and lacquer-work in Seoni.

People & Language—Perhaps few other States in India will compare with Madhya Pradesh in the diversity of ethnical constitution. This is reflected in the variety of dialects spoken all over the State. As many as 377 names of languages and dialects were returned as mother tongue at the 1951 census. Two elements dominate the racial mosaic of Madhya Pradesh : the Indo-Aryan and the aboriginal. Those in the northern areas

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and the Narmada Valley are largely from the Indo-Aryan stock. The southern and the eastern areas contain a large proportion of the aboriginal tribes. One out of every seven people in Madhya Pradesh belongs to the aboriginal tribes. They comprise the Munda, Baiga, Gond, Maria, Mandia, Bhathra and other Dravidian tribes, split again into numerous local groups, inhabiting the farthest jungle recesses.

Hindi is the chief language commonly understood and spoken throughout the State. There are, however, local and regional dialects ; mainly among them are Malwai in Malwa, Bundel-khandi in the Narmada valley, Baghel Khandi in the former Rewa State and Chhatisgarhi in Chhatisgarh. The aboriginals have their dialects too including Halbi, Gondi, etc.

Culture—Cultural heritage of Madhya Pradesh is outstanding. The examples are (1) Khajuraho temples—the highest watermark of mediæval sculpture and architecture, (2) the frescoes of Bagh caves, (3) Mandu—the 'city of joy', (4) Gwalior Fort, (5) Great Stupa at Sanchi, (6) Marble rocks near Jabalpur, (7) Ancient city of Ujjain, (8) Panchmarhi—the health and summer resort.

The Districts of Madhya Pradesh—Balaghat, Bastar, Betul, Bhilsa, Bhind, Bilaspur, Chhatarpur, Chhindwara, Damoh, Datia, Dewas, Dhar, Drug, Gird, Goona, Hoshangabad, Indore, Jabalpur, Jhabua, Mandala, Mandasaur, Morena, Narsimhapur, Nimar (Khandwa), Nimar (Khargone), Panna, Raigarh, Raipur, Raisen, Rajgarh, Ratlam, Rewa, Sagar, Satna, Sehore, Seoni, Shadol, Shajapur, Shivapuri, Sidhi, Surguja, Tikamgarh and Ujjain.

MADRAS

Capital ..	Madras	Salem	202,335
Population ..	29,974,936	Coimbatore	197,755
Area (sq. m.) ..	50,174	Vellore	106,024
Official Language	Tamil	Tanjore	100,680
Literacy ..	20·81	Tuticorin	98,866
Density of Pop. ..	597 per sq. m.	Kumbakonam	91,643
Universities ..	Madras, Annamalai	Tirunelvelli	113,486
		Nagercoil	73,908
Big Cities :		Cuddalore	69,084
Madras ..	1,416,056	Erode	57,576
Madurai ..	361,781	Tirupur	52,479
Tiruchirapalli ..	255, 623		

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The new State of Madras as formed under the Reorganisation of States Act of 1956, is bound by the new Mysore and Andhra Pradesh in the north, the Bay of Bengal on the East, and the range of Western Ghats on the west. With the coming of five talukas from Kerala to Madras, the famed Lands' End of India, Cape Comorin, has come to this State. It is southernmost State of the Republic. This reorganisation has resulted in a reduction of the area and population of the predecessor State by one-sixth. Madras now ranks in area as the eleventh among the 15 States of the Union, though on the basis of population it takes fifth place. With the transfer of South Kanara and Malabar districts to Mysore and Kerala respectively, the State has become a compact linguistic unit.

Scarcity of water becomes pronounced after the reorganisation of the State. The State has only one big river, the Cauvery and its waters are already utilised to the last drop. Other smaller rivers have all been harnessed.

Forests—Timber, fuel, bamboos, sandalwood, tan barks and other minor forest products are the main products of Madras forests. While the West Coast forests provide such well-known timber species as teak and rosewood, the comparatively dry forests in the eastern districts contain valuable sandal wood in which India holds almost a world monopoly. The timber forests are mostly confined to the high rainfall regions of the Western Ghats in South Kanara, Coimbatore, Madurai and Terunelvelli with more than forty marketable species. Next to teak, sandal is the most important forest produce of Madras. The extent of forest area of Madras is 13 p.c. of the total land area of the State.

Agriculture—Agriculture is the main occupation of the people. Not less than 61·54 per cent of the people in the State depend on agriculture.

The principal commercial crops of the State are groundnut, cotton, sugarcane, gingely, coconut, tapioca and castor arranged in a descending order of importance with reference to area. The staple foodcrops of the State are paddy, millets, pulses, onions, potatoes, sweet potatoes, tapioca and plantains. The Madras State is one of the two quinine producing States of India.

Minerals—Madras has some basic minerals, such as iron ores, bauxite and gypsum. The integrated Neiveli Project which aims to utilise hidden lignite wealth of South Arcot is full of bright promise. The important minerals of Madras are mica, gypsum, bauxite, limestone, china clay, magnesite, etc.

The existence of about 2,000 million tons of lignite (brown coal) in North Arcot district has been found out. Magnesite, bauxite and iron ores occur in Salem district.

Power Project—(*i*) Muchukund Hydro-electric Scheme, (*ii*) Pykara Electric Scheme, (*iii*) Mayor Hydro-electric Scheme, (*iv*) Madras Thermal

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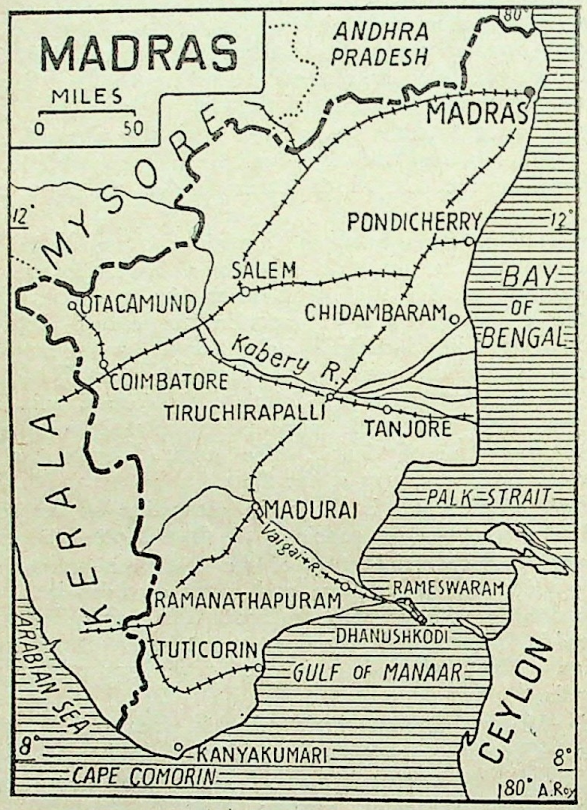
Scheme, (*v*) Papanasam Electric System, (*vi*) Mettur Hydro-electric Scheme.

The biggest power scheme so far launched in Madras State to develop available power resources is the Kundah Project. It is being erected with



the valuable Canadian aid obtained under the Colombo Plan. Kundah Project is situated in the Nilgiri Hills. There will be in all four power stations.

Principal Irrigation Projects—Lower Bhavani (Coimbatore and Tiruchirapalli districts), Mettur (Salem and Coimbatore districts), Araniar

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(Chingleput districts), Amaravati (Coimbatore district), Sathnur (North and South Arcot).

Industries—The most important industries of the State are textiles, engineering, sugar, tobacco, matches, oil milling, bricks and tiles, cement, lime, potteries, tanning, ginning and pressing. South India is noted for tanning industry. The State exports to the foreign markets hides and skins valued at more than 11 crores of rupees per annum. Other industries, both perennial and seasonal, include hosiery, silk mills, wollen mills, foundries, iron and steel mills, tea and coffee, breweries, rice mills, bones and manures, chemicals, oil mills, paints, soaps, paper mills, printing, bricks and tiles, glass, saw mills, rope works.

Main Industries are—(1) Textiles, (2) Sericulture, (3) Sugar, (4) Oil milling, (5) Vanaspati, (6) Soap, (7) Tiles, (8) Matches, (9) Cement, (10) Chemicals and Fertilizers, (11) Glass, (12) Film Industry, (13) Out of the 80 big tanneries in India, 50 are located in Madras.

Cottage Industries—(1) Handloom weaving, (2) Brass wares, (3) Palmyra jaggery products, (4) Coir goods, (5) Pottery, (6) Mats, (7) Umbrella, (8) Khadi, (9) Stone utensils, (10) Matches, (11) Aluminium wares, (12) Lac works, (13) Glass bangles, (14) Wood-carving, (15) Slates, (16) Ivory works, (17) Leather goods and leather tanning. The handloom industry with 4·5 lakh looms is the biggest cottage industry in the State. About 20 lakhs of people depend on this industry for their livelihood.

Cultural Heritage—Culture and civilisation, language and literature, art, sculpture and music have developed in this area as nowhere else in the country. The holy Gopurams and the important sculptures on rock in Tanjore, Mahabalipuram and Kancheepuram, the exquisite craftsmanship of Tanjore and the delicate movements of Bharatanatyam artists are the cultural heritage of the State. Mahabalipuram, otherwise known as "Seven Pagodas", lies at a distance of nearly 45 miles south of Madras and is remarkable for monolithic temples and rock-cut caves which are over 2,000 years old ; Tirukkalukkundram, which literally means the sacred hill of the kites, is situated about 35 miles from Madras. Of all the holy places in the Madras State, Rameswaram is prominent. Next in importance is Madurai which contains the temple of Minakshi ; Srirangam, nearly 200 miles south of Madras, is renowned for the temple of Ranganadha ; Tanjore contains the famous temple of Brihadeswara.

Music and dance are the two bright gems among South India's numerous fine arts. Carnatic music is one of the oldest of the two systems of classical music in India and is older than the Hindustani music system of the North. One of the four well-defined styles of Indian dancing, the *Bharata Natyam* of the South is the oldest and the most authoritative art-form. It has its root in the classical tradition of the "Natya Sastra" of Bharata.

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Districts of Madras—Chingleput, Coimbatore, Kanyakumari, Madras, Madurai, Nilgiris, North Arcot, Ramanathapuram, Salem, South Arcot, Tanjore, Tiruchirapalli, Tirunelveli.

ORISSA

Capital	.. Bhubaneswar	*Cities* :	
Population	.. 14,645,946	Cuttack	102,505
Area (sq. m.)	.. 60,250	Berhampore	62,343
Official Language	Oriya	Puri	49,057
Literacy	.. 15·80 p.c.	*Towns* :	
Density of Pop.	.. 234 per sq. m.	Sambalpur, Balasore, Parlakimedi,	
University	.. Utkal	Jaypur.	

The State of Orissa with a population of 1,46,45,946 is bounded on the south-west and north-east by Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal, respectively. Bihar and Madhya Pradesh lie on the north-west and west, and the blue waters of the Bay of Bengal wash its south-eastern shores. The whole area of the State, measuring 60,250 square miles, lies in the tropical zone and is divided into four distinct tracts, namely, the northern plateau, the eastern ghats, the central tract and the coastal plains. There are 23,000 square miles of forest and 300 miles of sea-board.

The great Mahanadi, the Brahmani and the Baitarani are its principal rivers. They run almost parallel from north-west to south-west. There are also some smaller rivers.

Orissa has 851 miles of National Highways and 1,343 miles of all-weather State Highways and 2,500 miles of District Roads connecting various places of interest in the State.

The cold weather lasts from November to February. The hot weather begins in March and terminates with the setting in of the rains in June, which continues till the month of October. The average rainfall in the northern districts is about 60 inches, while in the southern districts it is about 50 inches.

An analysis of the population of Orissa is interesting. Out of the total population of 1,46,45,946, the number of males is 72,42,892 and that of females 74,03,054. The density of population per sq. mile is 243 as against Indian average of 312.

Orissa is predominantly a rural State. It contains only one city and 38 towns, whereas the number of villages is 50,984. Thus the percentage of the urban population is as low as 4·06.

Irrigation—The outstanding feature of the present-day Orissa is the

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taming at least partially of the most turbulent of the State's river, *Mahanadi*. By the construction of the Hirakud dam, facilities will be provided to irrigate over 1,40,000 acres by the completion of the delta irrigation project. The first stage of the Hirakud Dam project has been substantially completed. The Rs. 100 crore Hirakud Scheme is divided into three component parts—(1) stage including Delta Irrigation, (2) Delta Irrigation Scheme, (3) Chipilima power house scheme (Stage II). Land acquisition for first stage for Machkund Dam project is almost complete.

Industries—Awaiting the harnessing of the Mahanadi, she is yet backward in industry. But many industrial undertakings have been taken up in recent years, such as, Titaghar Paper mills (Choudwar), Kalinga Tubes, Orissa cement, Hindustan Steel Plant at Rourkela, aluminium industries

at Hirakud, ferro-manganese plant, etc. Handloom industry is by far the most universal industry in Orissa. The brass and bell-metal industry has also reached high order. Filigree and horn industries are the two of the principal cottage industries of Orissa. Ornaments are of various kinds and they possess a high degree of workmanship and finish.

Forest—Forests occupy about 24,000 sq. miles, i.e., about 40 p.c. of the State's land surface. The timber species of the State are as follows—sal, piasal, saghan, rosewood, gambar, bandhan and haldu. Of the minor produce, the most important is the kendu leaves, which are in great demand for the manufacture of bidi. The next in importance is the bamboo which has helped to start paper mills. Another important item of minor forest

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produce is Rouwolfia Surpentina which reduces high blood pressure. The other minor important forest produce are lac, etc.

Minerals—Extensive deposits of iron ore containing over 60 p.c. iron occur in the State. Among these, the deposits in the districts of Sundargarh, Keonjhar and Mayurbhanj are the most important. In addition to these, the recently discovered iron ore deposits in the Cuttack district and Mayurbhanj are also important. Orissa contributes 20 p.c. of Indian manganese. The important manganese deposits are distributed in Keonjhar, Sundargarh, Balangir and Kalahandi districts of Orissa. Deposits of chromite occur in the districts of Keonjhar, Dhenkanal and Cuttack. Talcher has the largest coalfields in Orissa. Dolomite & limestones occur in large quantities in Gangpur and Sundargarh.

Power Projects—The projects under execution are as follows—(1) Machkund hydro-electric scheme, (2) Duduma Transmission scheme, (3) Hirakud power utilization scheme, (4) Rural electrification scheme, (5) Investigation of new schemes.

Districts of Orissa—Balasore, Bolangir, Cuttack, Dhenkanal, Ganjam, Plains, Kalahandi, Keonjhar, Koraput, Mayurbhanj, Phulbani, Puri, Sambalpur, Sundargarh.

PUNJAB

Capital	.. Chandigarh	*Cities* :	
Area	.. 47,062 sq. m.	Amritsar ..	.. 325,747
Population	.. 16,13,48,90	Patiala ..	.. 87,869
Density of Pop.		Jullundar ..	.. 168,816
(per sq. mile)	.. 343	Ludhiana ..	.. 153,795
Literacy	.. 15·23 p.c.	Ambala Cantt.	.. 94,043
Official Languages	Punjabi, Hindi	*Towns* :	
University	.. Punjab, Kurukshetra	Rohtak, Karnal, Batala, Panipat, Bhiwani.	

Bounded on the west by Pakistan, on the north by Kashmir, a block of Himachal Pradesh and Tibet and on the east by the river Jumna, the new State stretches far off into the hollow formed by Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Delhi on the south-east. Its area is 47,062 square miles lying between 27½° and 34° north.

The population of the new State according to 1951 census is 16,134,890. The organised State of Punjab is amongst the densely inhabited areas of India. Its density of population works out to be 243 persons per square mile as against 338·2 and 345·3 persons in the former States of Punjab and Pepsu respectively.

In the new State of Punjab 66·5 per cent of the people are engaged in agriculture.

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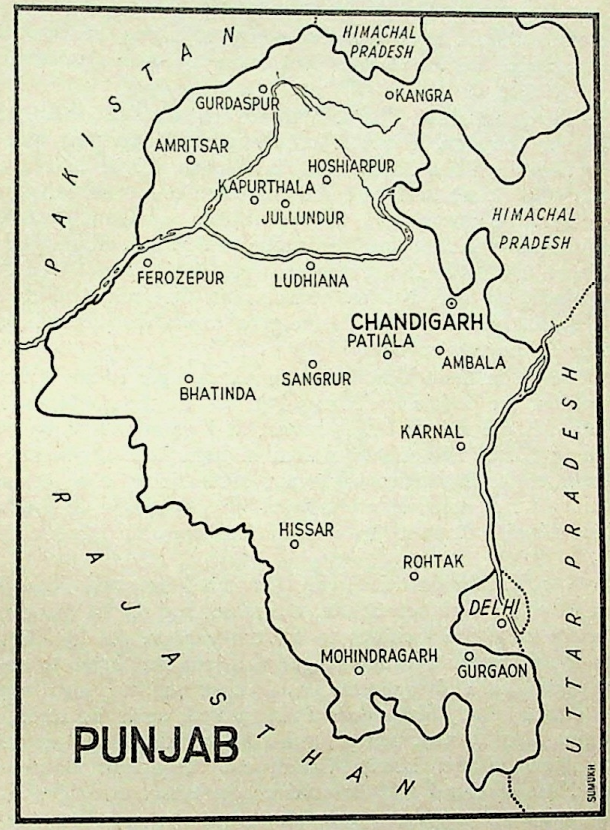
So far as literacy is concerned, the percentage in the new State works out to be 15·23.

For the more convenient transaction of the business of Government with regard to some specific subjects, the new State has been divided into two regions—namely, Hindi-speaking and Punjabi-speaking. For each of the regions, there will be a Regional Committee of the State Assembly consist-



ing of the legislators belonging to each region including the Ministers from that region but not including the Chief Minister. The advice tendered by the Regional Committees in respect of specified subjects will normally be accepted by the Government and the State Legislatures. In case of differ-

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ence of opinion, however, reference will be made to the Governor whose decision will be final and binding. The Regional Committees will also be empowered to make proposals with regard to "questions of general policy not involving any financial commitments other than expenditure of a routine and incidental character."

Language Policy—The Punjab is a bilingual State recognising both Hindi in Devnagri script and Punjabi in Gurumukhi script as the official languages of the State. The State Government promulgated on Sept. 28, 1960 the Punjab Official Language Ordinance enforcing Hindi and Punjabi as official languages in the Hindi and Punjabi regions respectively with effect from October 1, 1960.

The Hindi region of the Punjab embraces the districts of Kangra, Simla, Karnal, Rohtak, Gurgaon, Hissar, Mohindargarh, Kondaghat and Nalgarh tehsils of Patiala, Ambala district (excluding the Rupar and Chandigarh Assembly Constituencies) and Jind and Narwana tehsils of Sangrur district.

The Punjabi region consists of the districts of Gurdaspur, Amritsar, Bhatinda, Jullundur, Hosiarpur, Ferozepur, Ludhiana, Kapurthala, Rupar and Chandigarh Assembly Constituencies of Ambala district, Patiala district excluding Kandaghat and Nalgarh tehsils and Sangrur district excluding Jind and Narwana tehsils. The Chandigarh capital project will not form part of either of the two regions.

Agriculture—The main occupation of the people is no doubt agriculture ; 66·5 p.c. of the people are engaged in it. In the matter of food production, Punjab is the second largest wheat and gram-producing area in the Union, third in barley and maize, fourth in bajra and sugarcane, while it produces considerable suantities of jowar, cotton, rice, rape, mustard and small qualities of tea, tobacco, groundnut and linseed. The production of cotton in the Punjab amounts to one-fifth of the total production of the country.

Irrigation—After the partition, the best canal irrigated areas were lost to the West Punjab ; vigorous efforts, therefore, had to be made to extend more and more irrigation facilities to fill the gap created by the partition. Besides the multipurpose Bhakra-Nangal and Harike Projects and minor irrigation programme, a large number of other schemes also came to be undertaken during First Five Year Plan period, such as remodelling of Western Jumna Canal, construction of flood irrigation channtls, the extension of irrigation on the Eastern Canal, etc. In Pepsu Dadri Irrigation Scheme, the Narnaul Bund and Bein River Projects are some of the major schemes.

Industries—Among the important industrial centres, Jullundur has already become famous for producing sports goods, while Batala and Ludhiana are well-known for light engineering works and Amritsar for textile goods. Sonepat is well-known for cycle factory, which is one of the largest of its kind in the country. The other large scale industries include the

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woollen mill at Dhariwal, one new cotton spinning mill at Hissar, one sugar factory at Abdullapur, one paper mill at Jagadhari.

Regarding small scale industries, the State has a large number of medium and small-scale industries which include scientific instruments, glassware, wooden planks and hooks foundry and engineering, rerolling mills, cotton ginning, canning and preservation of foods, etc. In the production of artificial silks, Punjab ranks next to Bombay. There are working at present 35 units in the State.

Regarding cottage industries, manufacture of blankets, 'kheses', rugs, cycle parts, utensils making, tanning and wood industries, silk spinning and weaving, potteries, shoe-making, sewing machine parts, etc., are amongst the principal industries of the new State. There are more than 73,500 handlooms in the new State. In hosiery industry with 880 concerns out of a total of about 950 in India, Punjab occupies the leading position in the whole country. In the production of artificial silk, Punjab ranks next only to Bombay.

Electricity—The main sources of electric supply in the State are (1) Uhl River Hydro-Electric Scheme where four sets of 12,000 kw. each including one stand-by, are installed. (2) The Ganguwal Power House with 3 units of 24,000 kw. each, out of which at present two are working. (3) The Kotla Power House with three units of 24,000 kw., out of which one is working at present; and (4) a number of Government and private thermal electric supply stations at various places. Nine more generating units of 90,000 kw. each are scheduled to be installed at the site of Bhakra Dam.

The Districts—Ambala, Amritsar, Bhatinda, Ferozepur, Gurdaspur, Gurgaon, Hissar, Hoshiarpur, Jullundur, Kangra, Kapurthala, Karnal, Ludhiana, Mohindragarh, Patiala, Rohtak, Sangur.

UTTAR PRADESH

Capital	.. Lucknow
Population	.. 63,215,742
Area (sq. m.)	.. 113,423
Literacy	.. 10·80 p.c.
Density of Pop.	.. 557 per sq. m.
Official Language	Hindi
Universities :	
Lucknow, Allahabad, Agra, Aligarh, Banaras, Gorakhpur, Roorkee.	

Big Cities :

Agra ..	.. 375,665
Banaras ..	355,777
Kanpur ..	.. 705,383
Lucknow ..	.. 496,861
Allahabad ..	.. 332,295
Meerut ..	.. 233,183
Bareilly ..	.. 208,083
Moradabad ..	.. 161,854
Saharanpur ..	.. 148,435
Dehra Dun ..	.. 144,216
Aligarh ..	.. 141,618
Rampur ..	.. 134,277
Gorakhpur ..	.. 132,436
Jhansi ..	.. 127,365
Mathura ..	.. 105,773
Shahjahanpur	.. 104,835

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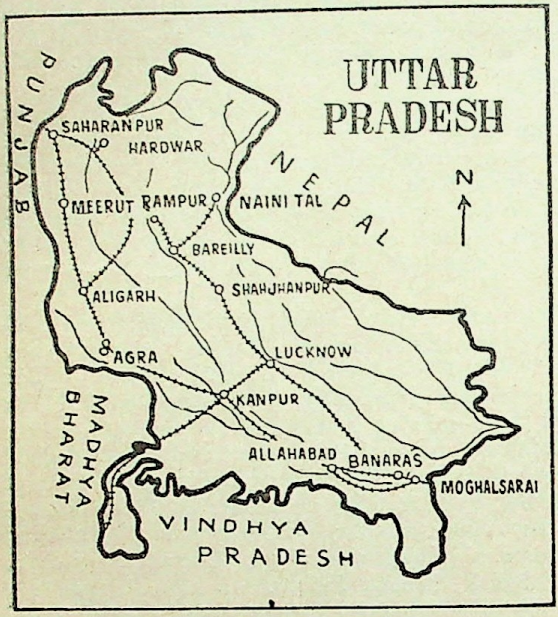
Uttar Pradesh, another frontier State along the foothills of the Himalayas, has common borders with Tibet and Nepal in the north, and is bounded by Bihar in the east, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan in the west and Vindhya Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh in the south. The former three princely States of Tehri Garhwal, Rampur and Banaras have been merged and certain areas of Vindhya Pradesh and Rajasthan have also been absorbed.



With a dry and extreme climate, her rainfall averages below 40 inches. The deficiency, however, is partly made up by the Ganges, the Jamuna and their canals making the basic occupation, agriculture more or less profitable. Uttar Pradesh is one of the best watered States of India. The climate on the whole is cooler and drier than that of West Bengal, though in hot weather, the heat is fiercer in the plains. Uttar Pradesh is only just within monsoon region and rainfall consequently is not so heavy as it is in further east. Compared to the other States in the Union, she thus stands first in her area under wheat, maize barley, gram, sugarcane and sesamum, second in bajra, linseed and rape and mustard besides producing considerable amounts of rice, jawar and small quantities of ragi, cotton, groundnut, tea and tobacco. She is besides the only opium producing area in the Union. Her forest areas as yet amount to about 13 p.c. of the total and are situated mainly at the foot of the Himalayas. Her mineral resources too have not been known to be very considerable; deposits of copper, slate, glass-sand, sandstone and steatite being alone located. She has also one of the best communication systems in the country, so far as it goes, since very ancient times, with the longest railway mileage of all the units of the Union at present.

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So far as industry is concerned, this is indeed one of the few industrially advanced territories with some modern and large-scale and many old cottage industries. She is particularly noted, however, for producing about 60 per cent. of the total sugar in India and a large amount of leather and footwear, cotton and woollen textiles, paper and chemicals among other things. In the public sector, there is Government cement factory at Churk, Lucknow where work is now in full swing. There is a Government Precision Instrument Factory at Lucknow.

Power—The total installed capacity of the power stations under the Hydel Unit of U.P. Electricity Board upto 1959 stood at 1,89,270 k.w.

Cottage Industries—The cottage industries in U.P. occupy an important place in the economic life of its people. All types and varieties of handicrafts or cottage industries exist and produce an immense range of articles, both necessities and luxury. Fabulous brocades and tissue of Banaras, carpets of Mirzapur, prints of Lucknow and Furrukhabad, ornamental brassware of Moradabad and Banaras, carved woodware of Saharanpur, durries of Agra and Bareilly, glass bangles of Firozabad, gold thread embroidered "zardozi" sarees of Lucknow, Bareilly and Agra, chikon articles and clay figures of Lucknow, fancy marbleware of Agra, pottery of Khurji, moonj baskets of Naini, designed furnishing fabrics of Ghanzipur and bordered sarees of Mau are not only known in India, but in foreign countries as well.

Districts of Uttar Pradesh—Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Almora, Azamgarh, Bahraich, Ballia, Banda, Bara Banki, Bareilly, Basti, Bijnor, Budaun Bulandshahr, Dehra Dun, Deoria, Etah, Etawah, Faizabad, Furrukhabad, Fatehpur, Garhwal, Ghazipur, Gonda, Gorakhpur, Hamirpur, Hardoi, Jalaun, Jaunpur, Jhansi, Kanpur, Kheri, Lucknow, Mainpuri, Mathura, Meerut, Mirzapur, Moradabad, Muzaffarnagar, Nainital, Pilibhit, Pratapgarh, Rae Bareli, Rampur, Saharanpur, Shahjahantpur, Sitapur, Sultanpur, Tehri-Garhwal, Unao, Varanasi.

RAJASTHAN

Capital	..	Jaipur	*Big Cities* :	
Population	..	15,970,774		
Area (sq. m.)	..	132,148	Jaipur ..	.. 291,130
Literacy	..	8·95 p.c.	Ajmer ..	.. 196,633
Density of Pop.	..	121 per sq. m.	Jodhpur ..	.. 180,717
Official Languages		Rajasthani & Hindi	Bikaner ..	.. 130,293
			Udaipur ..	.. 89,621
University	..	Rajasthan (Jaipur)	Kotah ..	.. 65,107
			Alwar ..	.. 57,868

The integration of Rajasthan came in the following ways : *The first step* towards integration in Rajasthan was taken on March 17, 1948, with the formation of Matsya—a union of the four States of Alwar, Bharat-

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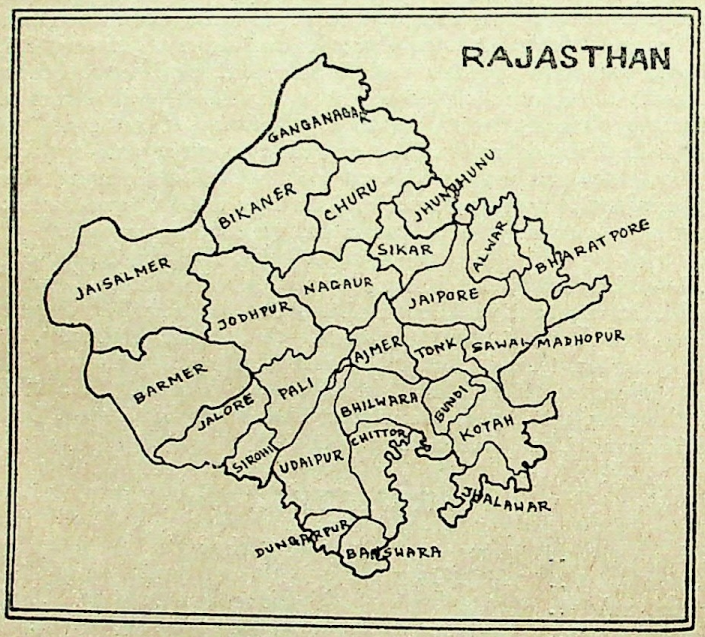
pur, Dholpur and Karauli. *The second step* came with the formation of Rajasthan—a union of the nine States of Banswara, Bundi, Dungarpur, Jhalawar, Kishengarh, Kotah, Pratapgarh, Shahpura and Tonk on March 25, 1948—to which the State of Udaipur joined on April 18, 1948, thus transforming the union into the United States of Rajasthan. *Next, two most important steps* were taken in 1949—the first on March 30, 1949 when the four large States of Bikaner, Jaipur, Jaisalmer and Jodhpur joined the United States of Rajasthan ; and the second on April 25, 1949, when Matsya also joined and there came into existence the United States of Greater Rajasthan. This Union of Greater Rajasthan was further enlarged by the accession to it of the State of Sirohi on January 25, 1950. The State of Rajasthan



thus consisted of 19 old Princely States from January 25, 1950 to October 31, 1956. The *final step* was taken on November 1, 1956, when the State of Ajmer, the tehsil of Abu and the area of Sunel Tuppa were integrated with Rajasthan. Rajasthan came into being, with its status raised from that of a Part B State to a full-fledged constituent State of the Indian Union.

Surrounded by Pakistan in the west and north-west, this State has Punjab, U.P. and Madhya Pradesh in her east and north-east ; Maharastra, to her south-west. Rajasthan has a scanty rainfall, its most striking feature

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being extreme variation and unequal distribution. The discovery of subsoil water in the Luni river in the near-desert zone, promises to change the face of the earth in that region. Jowar, bajra, wheat, maize, barley, gram are the principal crops ; certain amounts of cotton, sesamum, groundnut and rice being also grown.

Rajasthan occupies a prominent place on the new political map of India. It is the third largest State in the country from the standpoint of area. The State is sparsely populated, the average density being 121 per square mile. The percentage of literacy is as low as 8·5.

The State is rich in mineral resources. Two of Rajasthan's rich deposits are high class *limestone* and *gypsum*. The limestone is spread all over the State. Gypsum is one of the biggest gifts of nature to Rajasthan. In Jamsar and Lunkarsar, gypsum is obtained in large quantities and in purest form. One of the important ores available in Rajasthan is barytborium sulphate which is not found anywhere in India. Except in Salun district, large resources of sodium sulphate and salt occur at Didwana and Sambhar. Of Rajasthan's valuable ores only next to Bihar which together supply mica to the outside world.

The most important industries are the weaving of muslin, dying and printing of cotton cloths, manufacture of carpets, rugs and other woollen goods, enamelling, pottery, ivory work, gota kinari (silver and gold laces), lacquer, wooden toys, hand-made paper, papier-mache toys, embroidered shoes. Jaipur is famous for enamelling work.

Irrigation—There are two multipurpose projects in Rajasthan, namely, *Bhakra and Chambal*. Work in Rajasthan relating to Bhakra Nangal Project comprised of distribution channels and connected masonry works, i.e., project building etc. Almost all the works is expected to be completed shortly. The works in progress in Rajasthan under Chambal Project are Kota Barrage, Right Main Canal, Left Main Canal and their distribution system. Most of the work on Kota Barrage, Right Main Canal and Left Main Canal has been completed. All the remaining work will be completed in 1960-61.

Panchayat Raj—The most important landmark in the history of the State has been the introduction of *Panchayat Raj* on 22nd Oct., 1959 whereby local representative institutions, namely Panchayat Samities and Zila Parishads have been established at the Block and District levels. The step marks devolution of authority and initiative from the top to the roots.

Cattle—Rajasthan can well be proud of its cattle wealth. Its nine distinct breeds, with well-marked regions of distribution are of all-India importance. They continue to be the backbone of the State in its economy.

Districts of Rajasthan—Ajmer, Alwar, Banswara, Barmer, Bharatpur, Bhilwara, Bikaner, Bundi, Chittorgarh, Churu, Dungarpur, Ganganagar, Jaipur, Jaisalmer, Jalore, Jhalawar, Jhunjhunu, Jodhpur, Kotah, Nagaur, Pali, Sawaimadhopur, Sikar, Sirohi, Tonk, Udaipur.

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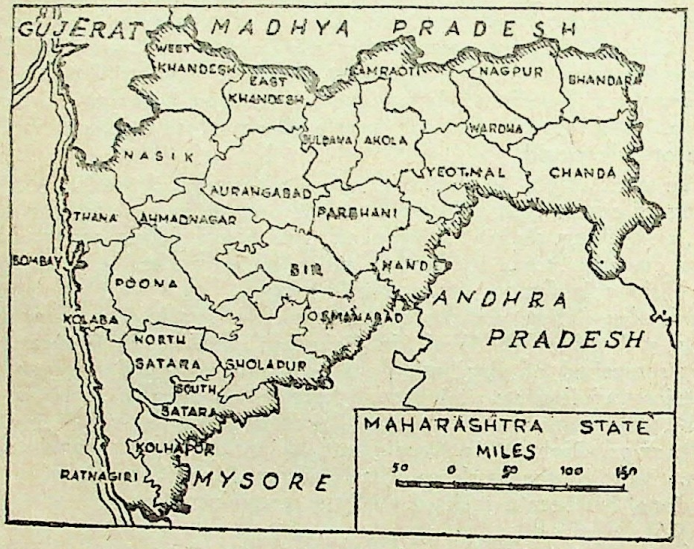
MAHARASHTRA

Capital	..	Bombay
Population	..	3,20,03,086
Area (sq. m.)	..	1,18,459
Town groups	..	373
Villages	..	35,526
Talukas	..	232
Districts	..	26
Density (per sq. m.)	..	270

Universities—Bombay, Gujarat, Ballavbhai Vidyapith.

Greater Bombay	..	28,39,270
Poona	..	5,88,545
Amaravati	..	1,24,064
Nagpur	..	4,49,099



Natural features—The State of Maharashtra forms a major part of peninsular India with the coast on its western side. It lies between 22·1 and 16·4 degrees north latitude and 72·6 and 80·9 degrees east longitude. The boundaries of the State are : Arabian Sea in the west ; Gujarat in the north-west ; Madhya Pradesh in the north ; Andhra Pradesh in the south-east and Mysore and Goa in the south. It has a total area of 1,18,459 sq. miles, which is a little more than 10 per cent. of the area of the Indian Union. The State with a coast-line of about 450 miles has one of the most progressive marine fisheries in India. It also possesses over 2,000 miles of river and rich resources of impounded waters with considerable potentialities for the development of culture fisheries.

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There are many interesting physical features in Maharashtra. First, we have a solid land-mass known as Decan Lavas or *Decan Trap*. This Decan Trap is due to the formation of big fissures caused in more or less flat land, which extruded hot boiling lava which flowed in intermittent waves over an area of some two lakh square miles of the land surface. This layer upon layer was deposited which now form solid land-mass known as Decan Trap. Western Ghats run close and almost quite parallel to the west coast, leaving a very narrow strip of land between the sea and the lofty mountain barrier, which is at no place more than 60 miles in breadth. This narrow strip of land from Daman to Vengurla is a distance of 350 miles, and is known as *Konkan*. Sandwiched between the sea on the one side and steep mountain face on the other, Konkan is a land extreme humidity and heavy rains. In the north is the Satpura range which runs almost in a straight line from east to west. Thus the Western Ghats running north-south and Satpuras running east-west, with their meeting point in the north-west of west Khandesh district, hold between them the vast plateau of the Deccan.

So far as rainfall is concerned, there is a considerable variation among the different parts of the State. Heavy rainfall spills over the Ghats and the coastal districts of Thana, Kolaba and Ratnagiri. In places in the Ghats, it is more than 120 inches, while the annual average is 80 inches. The major part of the State, however, lies in the rain shadow of the Ghats with the rainfall average around 25 to 30 inches and in some areas even less than 20 inches.

Agriculture—Agriculture is the bulwork of the economy of the Maharashtra State and the peasantry forms the bulk of the State's population which is over 64 per cent of the total population. The per cent of the net sown area in the State is as high as 58 as against 44½ in the Indian Union. Oil seeds and cotton are the chief cash crops of the State. Among the various oil seeds grown in the different districts of the State, groundnut and linseed are in the leading position. Nagpur oranges are grown in Nagpur, Amravati and Wardha districts which have about 24,100 acres under it, with an annual production a little less than one lakh ton.

Forests—The total forest area in the State is 157·18 lakh acres or 20·7 per cent or one-fifth of the geographical area of the State. The forest areas are thickly concentrated mainly in Chanda, Amravati, Yeotmal, Bhandra, Nagpur, West Khandesh, Thana and Nasik districts. The most important timber species of the State is teak. Other important species are *Chandan, Ain, Shisam, Bijasal, Babul, Khari, Haldu* and *Semul*. Minor forest products are—(1) fibres and flosses, (2) grass, bamboos and canes, (3) distilled and extracted products, (4) tans and dyes, (5) gums and resins, (6) animal and mineral products.

Industry—Important items of industry of Maharashtra are cotton textiles,

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general and electrical engineering, chemicals, sugar, vegetable products, paper boards and soaps. Among these, textile industry is by far the foremost and the largest, employing as it does about 3 lakh workers out of seven lakh workers employed in 8,036 factories of the State. Maharashtra is one of the major sugar producing States in the country having 26 sugar factories with a crushing capacity of 24,800 tons per day. Chemical industry in the State is developing fast and expanding to cover a very wide variety of products. There are in all four paper mills in the State. Ginning and pressing is an important processing industry serving cotton growing areas. There are about 600 such factories all over the State. Along with the growth of sugar factories, there has been considerable development of the production of industrial alcohol made wholly from molasses.

Minerals—The northern parts of Bhandara and Nagpur districts have rich deposits of manganese ore. Quarrying of limestone around Wani-Manjiri in Yeotmal district and some parts of Chanda is carried on on an extensive scale. The only coal-bearing area of Maharashtra State having extensive reserves of first grade and medium grade coal, is found in Nagpur Division and a part of Marathwada region. The major coal occurrances are, however, confined to the districts of Chanda, Nagpur and Yeotmal in Nagpur Division where 10 collieries are in operation at present. Nagpur and Bhandara districts possess some of the largest deposits of manganese ore in India. There are over 200 working mines in these two districts. Iron ore occurrances are known in many districts and the most important of them are confined to Ratnagiri, Chanda, Nagpur and Bhandara districts. Bauxite, the main raw material for production of metal aluminium, is found in Kolhapur, Kolaba, Sangli, Ratnagiri and Thana districts. Limestone occurs at various places and in various geological formations. The most important occurrances are confined to Vindhyan formations occurring in Yeotmal and Chanda districts. Chromite occurs in the districts of Ratnagiri and Bhandara. Extensive deposits of ilmenite are known to occur in Ratnagiri district. Silica sand or glass is available in Ratnagiri district in number of places. The State is also very rich in salt, which is produced in the coastal districts.

Tourist Attraction—Maharashtra State possesses numerous beauty spots. Some of the places of interest have historical associations. Ancient monuments—cave and structural—representing the various stages of art and architectural development of the land add further importance to places of tourist attraction. Western India is fortunate in having within its area some of the finest examples of Indian architecture. The world-famous Rock Temples of Ajanta and Ellora are in the Marathwada region of the State. The Elephanta Caves, on an island, a few miles away from the Bombay harbour, are a sure tourist attraction. The caves contain one of the most imposing and attractive sculptures in the world—the Trimurti. The other caves of importance in the State include the Kanheri Caves. These caves

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belong to the period from 100 B.C. to 50 A.D. and are situated 19 miles from Bombay city. The Karla Caves are about 30 miles from Poona. They contain Chaitanya Cave, the largest and one of the best of its kind preserved in the country. Numerous forts dotting the Western Ghats unfold to the visitors the important role they played in the destinies of Maharashtra history, particularly in the time of Shivaji. Regarding the cities, we have Bombay which is a cosmopolitan city with all nationalities, races and communities. Tourists attractions in Bombay are Rajabai Clock Tower, Malabar Hill, Hanging Gardens, Kamala Nehru Park, Marine Drive, Mahalaxmi Race Course, Prince of Wales Museum, Victoria Gardens and Aibert Museum, Crawford Market, Taraporevala Aquarium and the Aarey Milk Colony. Poona has historical forts, Parvati Temple, Sinhagar Fort 15 miles from Poona. In Aurangabad we have Bibi-ka-Maqbara, the Mousoleum of Rabia Durani, wife of the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb, designed after Tajmahal of Agra. Hill Stations of Bombay are Mahabaleshwar, 75 miles from Poona, Panchgani ; Matheran is close enough to Bombay.

Divisions and Districts—Bombay Division has greater Bombay, Kolaba, Ratnagiri, Thana, Nasik, East Khandesh and West Khandesh. Poona Division has Poona, Ahmednagar, Kolhapur, North Satara, South Satara and Sholapur. Nagpur Division has Nagpur, Akola, Amravati, Bhandara, Buldana, Chanda, Wardha and Yeotmal. Aurangabad Division has Aurangabad, Bhir, Nanded, Osmanabad and Parbhani.

GUJARAT

Capital ..	Ahmedabad	*Towns* :	
State Language	Gujarati	Ahmedabad	.. 9,22,060
Population ..	1,62,62,135	Baroda	.. 3,48,928
Area (sq. m.) ..	72,137	Jamnagar	.. 1,80,742
Town Groups ..	243	Rajkot	.. 1,82,928
Villages ..	18,729	Bhavnagar	.. 1,81,614
Talukas ..	183	Junagadh	.. 1,21,079
Density ..	223 per sq. m.	Porbandar	.. 1,27,001
Universities ..	Gujarat, Maharaja Sayajirao University, Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapith.	Meshana	.. 1,48,578
		Nanded	.. 1,63,198

New State—From 1st May 1960, the new State of Gujarat comprising what was known as Saurashtra, Kutch and other Gujarati-speaking areas of the West Coast, north of Bombay came into being by the bifurcation of Bombay. The State consists of 17 districts. In the predominating agri-

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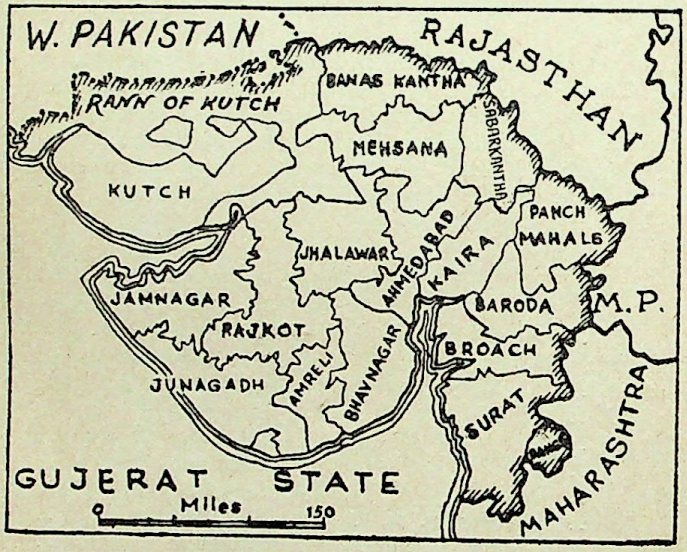
cultural economy of the State, the occupational break up of the population shows that 57·5 p.c. of the people are engaged in agriculture, 15·3 p.c. in non-agricultural production, 8·3 p.c. in business and trade, 1·9 p.c. in transport and 16·8 in miscellaneous occupations.

Natural Boundaries—The State of Gujarat is situated on the West Coast of India between 20·1 and 24·7 degrees north latitude and 68·4 and 74·4 degrees east longitude. On the west of Gujarat is the Arabian Sea ; on the north-west is the Gulf of Kutch. To the north lie the little Rann and the Mewar Desert and to the north-east Abu. The east is guarded by rough forests rugged in the north with wide spurs of the Vindhyas, more open towards the central natural highway from Bandra to Ratlam and southwards again rising and roughening into the northern offshoots from the main range of the Satpuras.



Physical Features—From the point of view of its physical features, Gujarat can be divided into three regions : the mainland extending from the Rann of Kutch and Aravali Hills to the river Damanganga ; the hilly peninsular region of Saurashtra and Kutch ; and the north-eastern hilly tract. The mainland is almost a flat plain made up of alluvial soil although the northern most part of it is a bit sandy. The plains of Gujarat are watered by big rivers like the Banas, Saraswati, Sabarmati, Mahi, Narmada,

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Tapi and some small rivers. A large part of the border line of Gujarat is covered with hills which are the tails of the mountains lying outside the territories of Gujarat.

Climate—As the Tropic of Cancer passes through Gujarat's northern border, the State has an intensely hot or cold climate. But the Arabian Sea and the Gulf of Cambay washing its western coast reduce the temperature and render the climate more pleasant and healthy. The presence of the forest-covered rugged mountains and hills on the eastern boundry also help to reduce the intensity of climate.

Land, Agriculture and Irrigation—Rainfall in Gujarat ranges from 15 to 100 inches. The soil is varied—goradu, black, alluvial, sandy, etc. The principal crops are cotton, wheat, paddy, jowar, bajra, pulses and tobacco. The important cash crop is cotton. More than one-fifth of the area under cotton in the Indian Union is in Gujarat State. The percentage of area under barren and uncultivable land is very high. The State is, however, rich in permanent pastures and grazing lands which account for 2·65 per cent of the area.

The State is noted for its well-irrigation. More than four-fifths of the irrigated area is irrigated by wells. The percentage of area under food crops is only 55·70 of the total cultivable area as against 65·25 in the bilingual Bombay State. Among cereals, bajra and jowar occupy a sizable portion of the cultivated area.

Gujarat is famous for its Gir, Kanrej and Kutch breeds of cow. Junagadh, Surat and Mehsana breeds of buffalo are equally famed.

Flora and Fauna—There is no appreciable forests in Gujarat. They are, however, well distributed. On the west there is the Gir area ; in centre there are the Panchmahal forests and in the south lie Surat and Dangs forests. The Gir forests are known as the remaining 'habitat' of the Asian lion. These forests are again repositories of valuable herbs. The total area under forests is only 38·26 lakh of acres.

Minerals—Recently oil has been struck in the Cambay and Ankleshwar areas. Deposits of metal ores of iron, gold, manganese are generally found in oil hard rocks. Lignite occurs in two places in Lakhpat of Kutch district. Semi-precious stones are found in Rajpipla, Jhagadia and Cambay areas. There are also ample deposits of fire clay, china clay, manganese, gypsum, etc. Mica, bauxite and iron ore are also plenty.

Industries—Gujarat has many major as well as minor industries. Of these, textile is the most outstanding one, followed by pharmaceuticals, dye-stuffs, chemicals, cement and salt. There are also other industries, such as ceramics and potteries, paints and varnishes, oilseeds crushing industry, handloom industry, dairy industry and cotton mills machinery spare parts industry. It is one of the main salt producing centres in the country. The State produces salt to the extent of about 25 p.c. of the total production of India, *i.e.*, about 10 lakh tons annually. At present there are

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31 major salt works, of which 14 are marine and rest are inland. Rajkot division of the State supports wool industry.

Ports—Gujarat has a coastline, measuring about 900 miles, having 52 ports with Kandla as the sixth major port of India. Bhavnagar, Bedi, Navlakhi, Okha, Porbandar, Veraval, Mandri and Broach are intermediate ports and the rest are minor ports.

Irrigation and Power Schemes—The irrigation potential has not been adequately tapped so far. Harnessing of both big and small rivers has, however, been undertaken under two Five-year Plans. The major irrigation schemes in progress are Kakrapar, Mahi, Shetrunji and Bhadar. So far no major hydro-electric scheme has been undertaken in Gujarat. But necessary spedwork has been undertaken. Power potential is being steadily increased. All towns, having a population of about 50,000 and above, have electricity facilities. About 53 per cent of the number of towns in the State have been electrified.

Culture—Gujarat has its own traditions of song and dance, as well as of drama. The important folk dances of Gujarat are the Garba, the Garbi and the Ras, and the folk-drama is known as Bhawai. Of these, Garba is the most important folk dance of Gujarat. Gujarat is studded with places of pilgrimage. Prominent among these are Dwarka, Pravhas Patan, Shatrunajya, Gernir and Gadhda in Saurashtra, Sidhpur, Dakor, Ambaji, etc.

Name of Districts—Banaskantha, Sabarkantha, Mehsana, Ahmedabad, Khela, Panchmahal, Baroda, Broach, Surat, Dangs, Kutch, Jamnagar, Rajkot, Surendranagar, Bhavnagar, Junagadh, Amreli.

JAMMU & KASHMIR

Capital	..	Srinagar
Population	..	44,10,008
Area (sq. m.)	..	85,861
University	..	Jammu & Kashmir
Density of Pop.	..	54
Principal Languages	..	Kashmiri, Urdu and Dogri

Cities & Hill Stations :
Srinagar
Jammu
Gulmarg
Pahalgam
Khilan Marg
Seshnag

Jammu and Kashmir, the northernmost State of India, touches the boundaries of these countries—Afganisthan, U.S.S.R. and China in the north ; Tibet lies to the east and the Punjab to the south. It has an area of 85,861 sq. miles. The altitude in the valley varies from 5,000 feet above the sea level. According to estimate of 1950, the total population was 4·37 millions.

The country is almost entirely mountainous, and it may be geographically divided into three areas : Tibetan and semi-Tibetan tracts in the north, containing the districts of Ladak and Gilgit ; the middle region of the Happy Valley of Kashmir and the large level areas of Jammu in the

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south. This mountainous State covered on its north by snow for about half the year and with extensive rich forests in the valleys of the Chenab, the Jhelum and the Indus, has its chief crops in rice, wheat, maize, barley, oil seeds, cotton, tobacco and saffron. The State has a large amount of fruits for export, principally walnuts, almonds, pears and apples. The mineral resources of the State as yet unexplored are large indeed, including among them coal, zinc, copper, lead, bauxite, fuller's earth, slate, kaolin, asbestos as well as gold and sapphire. Her silk filature industry is the biggest in the world and equally famed are her shawls, carpets and wooden carvings. Jammu and Kashmir in divided into four administrative units : Jammu Province including Poonch and Chenani ; Kashmir Valley including Astore, Ladakh and the Frontier district and the Gilgit area.

Land Reforms—The land reforms in Kashmir are more revolutionary than anywhere in India. A ceiling of 22·75 acres has been imposed on all agricultural land. Some 9,000 landlords owning between them 8,00,000 acres (out of a total cultivated area of 24,00,000) have had to surrender 4·5 lakh acres of surplus land over and above the ceiling. For this, they have received no compensation. The old and hated levy of food grains from peasants known as *mujwaza* has been abolished since 1953.

The land route begins from Pathankot, the railway terminus of Northern Railway. The distance from Pathankot to Srinagar *via* Jammu is 267 miles. The first 64 miles upto Jammu are by a nicely metalled and tarred plain road and the rest leads through mountainous and picturesque scenery. The Indian Air Lines are operating passenger service between Delhi and Srinagar. The opening of Banihal Tunnel on 22nd December, 1956 was an important event in the history of Kashmir. The physical barrier separating the valley from the rest of the country has been overcome and a permanent link between Kashmir and the rest of India forged.

Transport—Jammu & Kashmir State has the distinction of being the only State in India where the Government and Private Transport run side by side under a controlled competition. Transport industry has been playing a leading role in contributing its share towards the government's efforts in raising the living standards of the people.

Education—Kashmir is the only State in India where education is free

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at all stages, including the university. No tuition fee is charged in any Government school or college.

Constitution—Kashmir acceded to India on October 26, 1941. By the new constitutional set-up, the office of the Maharaja has been eliminated and new head of the State known as *Sadar-i-Riyasat* is elected for a term of five years by the recommendation of the State Assembly. He is to be recognised by the President of India and holds office during the pleasure of the President.

The new constitution of Kashmir passed on November 17, 1956, by the Kashmir Constituent Assembly declares that—"Jammu & Kashmir is and shall be an integral part of India." Based on the Parliamentary system of Government, the Constitution promises a socialistic order of society and thus brings the State's policy in line with the aims and objects of the Indian Constitution as a whole.

Agriculture—The rice is cultivated at the bottom of the valleys. The economy of the State is built upon the cultivation of fruits and vegetables. Soil conservation work has been going apace in various parts of the State which has removed the soil-erosion menace.

Population—The population of Jammu & Kashmir is mainly Muslim ; 75 p.c. are Muslims, Hindus form 20 p.c., Sikhs 1·6 p.c., Buddhist 1 p.c. and the rest 0·11 p.c.

Languages—The principal languages of the State are *Kashmiri* which is the language of more than 1½ million ; *Punjabi* is spoken by over one million ; *Dogri*, spoken by nearly 30,000 and *Balti* by about 10,000. The official language is *Urdu*.

Industries—Woollen textile manufacture is the biggest single industry in the State. The Kashmir woollens such as shawls, carpets, namdas and gabhas are world-famous. After this comes silk industry. Kashmir filatures are the largest in the world for single unit production and produce one of the finest quality of silks. Papier-machie, silver-wares and wood carving are also prominent industries of the State. Other minor industries are forest products, such as timber, herbs, furs and skins and fruits and vegetables. The Government Arts Emporium Organisation with its branches opened over the principal cities of India has been pushing up the production of State's indigenous crafts.

Minerals—The minerals found in the State are : coal, lignite, bauxite, manganese, copper, chromite, ochre, gypsum, marble, slate. The Government have established a Corporation with an authorised capital of Rs. 5 crores for commercial exploitation of mineral deposits in the State.

Tourism—Tourist traffic is one of the main sources of income both to the State and the people. About 50,000 people visit the place annually.

The Districts of Jammu & Kashmir—Anantanag, Astore, Gilgit Leased Area, Gilgit Agency, Baramulla, Chenani, Jammu, Kathua, Ladakh, Mirpur, Muzaffarbad, Poonch, Reasi, Udampur.

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MYSORE

Capital	.. Bangalore	*Big Cities* :	
Population	.. 19,401,193	Bangalore	.. 778,977
Area (sq. m.)	.. 74,861	Mysore	.. 244,323
Literacy	.. 19·29 p.c.	Kolar Gold Fields	.. 159,084
Language	.. Kannada	Hubi	.. 129,609
Density of Pop.	.. 259 per sq. m.	Mangalore	.. 117,083
Universities	.. Mysore, Karnatak (Dharwar)	Bellary	.. 70,322
		Davangere	.. 56,018

The present Mysore State, which came into being on November 1956, consists of 19 districts, roughly covering an area known in our ancient classics as 'Karnataka.' It consists of territories of the former State of Mysore and Coorg, parts of Belgaum district of Bombay and of Hyderabad and of Coimbatore. The State brings together the Kannada speaking people, previously distributed in five States.

Coorg, which is now a district of Mysore, covers an area of 1,586 sq. miles, mainly on the Western Ghats. It is rich in scenic beauty and natural resources. Coorg's evergreen forests spread over an area of 517 sq. miles. Coorg's fauna is also magnificent. It is the habitat for tigers and elephants, deer and rabbits. Wild life can be seen in its natural habitat, specially at the Nagerhol game sanctuary exceeding over an area of 111 sq. miles. Coorg is essentially an agricultural country. Almost all its hill slopes grow coffee, cardamom, pepper or orange, while almost all its valleys and plains produce paddy. Coorg's coffee accounts for one-third of India's total production.

Agriculture forms the main occupation of more than three-fourths of the population.

Physically, the original Mysore divides itself into two regions—the *'Maidan'* or plain country, comprising roughly the districts of Bangalore, Tumkur, Chitaldrug, Kolar, Mandya and Mysore, and the *'Malnad'* or hill country, comprising the districts of Chickmagalur, Hassan and Shimoga. Rainfall is heavy in the Malnad tracts, and dense evergreen forests abound in big games forming their characteristic features. The great part of Maidan country is cultivated.

Language—Kannada is the principal language and the mother tongue of 62·2 p.c. of the population. It is the language of administration and of instruction and is the principal language in all districts except Kolar where it is second to Telugu. There are about 16 other languages spoken by minor groups making up a total of 37·8 per cent.

Industries—Some of the main industries of Mysore may be mentioned here. *Sandalwood* is one of the most valuable productions of the State and in fact it holds monopoly in the world market. The Government Sandalwood Oil Distillery is the biggest of its kind in the world, where Sandalwood oil is distilled under the most stringent and scientific control. Other important industries are Mysore Iron and Steel Works at Bhadravati,

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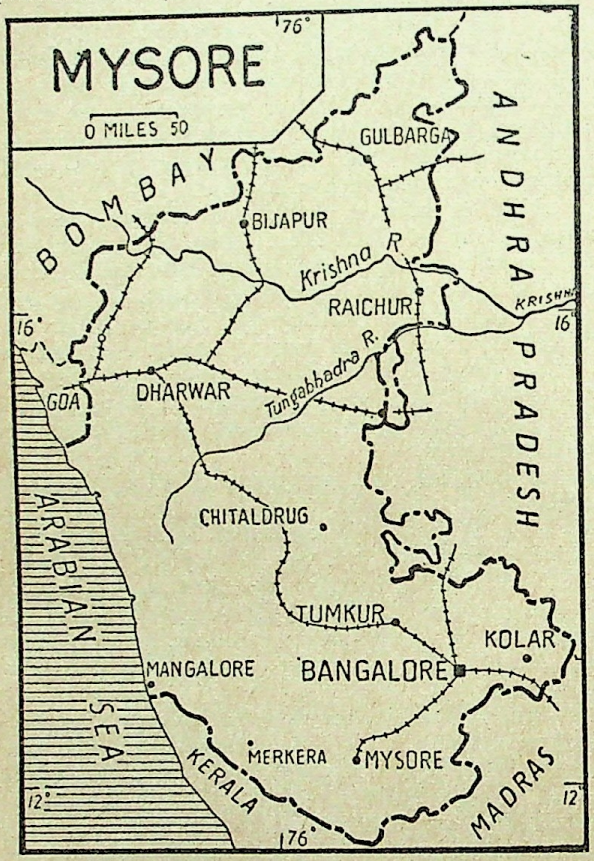
the Cement Works at Sahabad and Bhadravati, Match Works at Shimoga, Woollen and Silk Mills at Bangalore and Mysore, Paper manufacturing at Bhadravati and certain industries of strategic importance, such as, Hindusthan Aircraft, Hindusthan Machine Tools, Bharat Electronics and Indian Telephone Industries, Government Silk Weaving Factory, Mysore Lamp Works, Government Porcelain Factory, Government Soap Factory, Mysore Implements Factory at Hassan, West Coast Paper Mill at Dandeli.



Forests—The forests cover an area of 60,91,953 acres. Sandal tree is a State monopoly yielding the largest share of forest revenue. Bamboo abounds in large forests and is one of the most valuable products. In Mysore, North Kanara district is rich in forest wealth. The slopes of Western Ghats are clothed with evergreen vegetation with very heavy

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forests .Good timber-yielding trees and bamboos are found in abundance. Coorg, the land of honey, coffee and orange, is rich in forest wealth. The all-pervading forests yield different varieties of timber-yielding trees. South Kanara is essentially a forest district.

Tourists' Paradise—From many points of view, the State is a tourists' paradise, with lovely cities, enriched by shrines and marvels of sculpture. Travel is easy and pleasing. The climate is salubrious. Communications by road as well as by railway are well maintained throughout the State.

Of all show places in Mysore, the *Jog Falls* take the pride of place. The Jog Falls are formed by the river Sharavati falling into a mighty chasm about half a mile wide and 850 ft. deep. They are four in number. The places of interest at Bangalore are Lal Bagh, Indian Institute of Science, Raman Research Institute, Mental Hospital, innumerable industrial undertakings owned and managed by the National Government, Cauvery Falls at Sivasamudram, Temple of Ranganathswami at Srirangapatnam. The city of Mysore with its palace, Chamundi Hills, Krishnarajasagar which is the second biggest artificial lake in the world, Brindaban gardens are all important places of show. The Mysore State possesses many beautiful temples, such as, Chennakesava Temple at Belur, Hoysaleswara Temple at Halebid, Nandi Hills containing some picturesque Hindu shrines, Gomateswara Statute, the longest standing statue of Asia. Bijapur, the ancient capital of the famous Adil Shahi kings, possesses many buildings of historical and archæological interest. Chief among them is Gol Gumbaz, the mausoleum of Mahomad Adil Shah.

Cottage Industries—Main cottage industries are—leather-stitching and ornamental work, brass work, pottery, weaving, carpentry, coir industry, sandal work and ivory inlay works, mat weaving, flaying, hand-made paper, rattan industry. The cottage industries of Coorg is bee-keeping.

Power Projects—The three important hydro-electric projects undertaken are: (1) Sharavatty Hydro-electric Project, (2) Bhadra Hydro-electric Project and (3) Tungabhadra Hydro-electric Project. The electrification of the rural areas has been taken up on an intensive scale by the State Electricity Board. As many as 580 towns and villages have been electrified by the end of 1959-60.

Irrigation Projects—Mysore has been one of the pioneering States in India in the field of irrigation and electricity. Naturally, it has a number of major and medium irrigation schemes, the Tungabhadra Project being the largest of them. The other major projects include the Bhadra Reservoir Project, Ghataprabha Project, etc., all of which are in under various stages of progress. After full development and completion, these major projects alone would irrigate over 10 lakh acres in the various parts of the State.

Districts of Mysore—Bangalore, Pelgaum, Bellary, Bidar, Bijapur, Chickmagalur, Chitaldrug, Coorg, Dharwar, Gulbarga, Hassan, Kanara, Kolar, Mandya, Mysore, Raichur, Shimoga, South Kanara, Tumkur.

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KERALA

Capital	..	Trivandrum	*Big Cities* :		
Population	..	13,549,118	Kozhikode	..	158,724
Area (sq. m.)	..	15,006	Trivandrum	..	186,931
Literacy	..	50·37	Alleppey	..	116,287
Principal			Mattancheri	..	73,908
Language	..	Malayalam	Trichur	..	69,515
Density of Pop.	..	907 per sq. m.	Palghat	..	69,504
University	..	Kerala ..	Quilon	..	66,126
			Ernakulam	..	62,283

In the reorganised map of South India, Kerala State occupies a strategic position. Nestling amidst the blue waters of the Arabian Sea and the tall ranges of Western Ghats, it is a thinly long stretch of coastal territory, from Kasargode in the north to Trivandrum in the South. It is bound on the east by the Western Ghats and on the West by the Arabian Sea. The distance from south to north is little over 400 miles and maximum breadth from east to west is about 80 miles. Kerala is the smallest of the 15 States in the Indian Union. Kerala, representing the Malayalam speaking areas of the country, has been formed by the integration of the major part of the former State of Travancore and Cochin, the Malabar district of Madras State and the Kasargode taluk of South Kanara district and Amindivi Islands. On the other hand, it has lost the Tamil areas comprising the taluks of Thovula, Agastheeswaram, Kalkulam, Vilavancode and Shencottach (eastern parts).

Literacy and Education—Kerala stands foremost among the Indian States in literacy and educational advancement. The literacy of the State is worked out at 50·37 p.c. of the total population. According to the last census, the p.c. of literacy in Travancore-Cochin is 53·76 ; the percentage of literacy for males being 64·47 and that of for females 43·23. In Malabar area literacy is at lower level, i.e., 31 per. cent.

Agriculture—The chief agricultural products of the State are rice, tapioca, coconut, arecanut, oilseeds, pepper, sugarcane, rubber, tea, coffee cardamom, etc. The State is famous for its hill products. The chief articles of export among agricultural crops, which contribute to a large share of India's foreign exchange earnings, are cashew kernels, rubber, pepper, tea, cardamom and other spices. The long coast-line enables the State to maintain a flourishing fishing industry. The natural rubber is one of the main agricultural products of the State. The State accounts for the 90·9 p.c. of the total Indian output.

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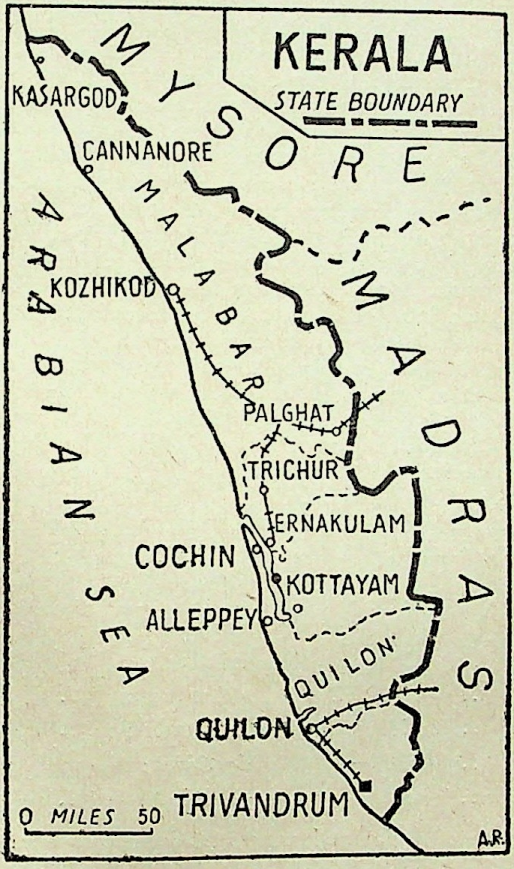
Forests—The State of Kerala is rich in forest wealth. About 3,052 sq. miles of the Kerala area are reserve forests. The forests of Kerala are noted for their resources of timber including teak, ebony, rosewood and blackwood and varieties of soft wood. Nearly 600 species of timber are grown in the forests.



Mineral Wealth—Next to Bihar, Kerala possesses the widest variety of economic mineral products among the Indian States. Some of the minerals occur in much greater abundance in this region than in Bihar.

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The beach sands of Kerala contain the much valued and strategic minerals like ilmanite, monazite, rutile, ziron and silimanite. The extensive white clay deposits of Kerala contribute to the flourishing industry and abundant resources of mica, graphite, limestone, quartz sand, lignite and a host of other minerals of commercial importance mark out this region as rich field of commercial importance.

Industries—The abundance of natural resources, the availability of cheap electric power and the existence of numerous rivers and waterways have contributed to the industrial advancement of Kerala. Most of the major industrial concerns are either owned or sponsored by the Government. The Government owns seven industrial concerns and have substantial shares in more than 40 concerns. Other factory industries are rubber, tea, tiles, oil, textiles, ceramics, fertilizers, chemicals, sugar, cement, rayon, glass, matches, monazite, ilmenite, rare earths, shark liver oil, etc.

Cottage Industries—Among the cottage industries, coir-spinning and handloom weaving are the most important ones. Other industries are the fish oil industry, ivory carving, furniture-making, bell-metal, brass and copper ware, leather goods, mat making, rattan work, bee-keeping, pottery, etc. Kerala leads other States in the manufacture of coir goods.

Major Irrigation Works—There are at present eight major irrigation works costing about 1,447 lakhs and catering to the needs of a total area of 2,81 lakhs acres of paddy fields. These are (1) *Malampuzha Project,* (2) *Walayar Reservoir Project,* (3) *Mangalam Reservoir Project,* (4) *Peechi Scheme,* (5) *Chalakudy (first stage) Scheme,* (6) *Vazhani Scheme,* (7) *Kuttanad Scheme,* (8) *Neyyar Scheme,* (9) *Periyar Valley Scheme,* (10) *Ceerakuzhy,* (11) *Meenkara.*

Districts of Kerala—Alleppey, Cannanore, Kottayam, Kozhikode, Palghat, Quilon, Trichur, Trivandrum.

DELHI

Capital	..	Delhi	Principal Languages	..	Hindi, Urdu and Punjabi
Population	..	1,744,072			
Area (sq. m.)	..	573	Density of Pop.	..	3,44 per sq. m.
Literacy	..	32·34 p.c.	*Big Cities* :		
University	..	Delhi	Delhi	..	13,84,211

Delhi, the imperial city under many a dynasty in the past centuries, with its surrounding districts was constituted as a separate administrative unit for the seat of the Central Government of India in 1912. The seat of the Government was shifted since then to the new and modern city of New Delhi nearby. New Delhi is a city, Delhi is a district and Delhi is a State. This smallest State of the Union has an area of 573 sq. miles with a

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population of 1,744,072 in 1951. Placed 700 ft. above sea level and the focal point of all railways, she has an arid territory and an extreme climate. An enclave of territory in the Punjab bordering on U.P., her average rainfall is about 26 inches. For her small area, she produces a considerable amount of gram, wheat, bajra, jowar, barley and some amount of sugarcane, rape and mustard and tobacco. It has cottage industries like jewellery, brass and copper wares, ivory work, pottery, weaving, gold and silver embroidery, famed of yore. In recent times modern factories have been set up for the production of cotton textile, and chemicals among other things.

Under the Constitution of India, Delhi is a Union Territory. The Centre exercises control over the Territory through a Chief Commissioner appointed by it.

Under the States' Reorganisation Act, the President has constituted an Advisory Council for Delhi which is a Union Territory. The Council is associated with the Minister of Home Affairs who is responsible for the administration of the Union Territories. The Council consists of all members of the Parliament representing Delhi, the Chief Commissioner of Delhi, the Vice-Chancellor of the Delhi University, President of the Delhi Municipal Committee and the Senior Vice-President of the New Delhi Municipal Committee. Besides, there are two Advisory Boards to advise Chief Commissioner in regard to industrial matters and public relations.

Industries—The main industries are cotton mills, hosiery, pottery, flour mills, jewellery, leather goods and tanning, vegetable oil mills, etc.

The Delhi Municipal Act 1957 was passed by Parliament on December 17, 1957 as part of the implementation of the scheme for the reorganisation of States. This Act establishes a municipal corporation for Delhi excluding cantonment area and some parts of New Delhi (including the Diplomatic Enclave) and provides for a unified and integrated civil administration for the urban as well as rural areas. The Delhi Development Act was also passed in 1957. Under this Act, the Delhi Development Authority will carry on the civil survey of, and prepare a master plan for Delhi and shall promote and secure the development of Delhi according to Plan.

PONDICHERRY

Area	.. 196 sq. m.	Capital	.. Pondicherry
Population	.. 317,163	Principal Languages	.. French & Tamil

Following an agreement with the Government of France, the Government of India took over on November 1, 1954, the administration of the territories formerly known as the 'French Establishments in India'. This

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Treaty is yet to be ratified formally by the French Government. Meanwhile, the administration of the State is being carried on by the Government of India through the Chief Commissioner and an advisory body of six selected Councillors.

History of the Merger Movement—With the achievement of Indian freedom, the popular urge in the French Settlements for freedom from foreign rule became more pronounced. On Indian Independence Day, the citizens of French India at a public meeting unanimously declared themselves in favour of reunion with India.

As early as June 1948, India and France agreed on a referendum to decide the future of the Settlement. But conditions caused by certain refractory elements vitiated the possibility of having a fair and impartial referendum.

In April 1951, a team of neutral observers appointed by the French themselves confirmed this and noted the seroius difficulties which prevented free popular consultation.

Another effort was made by India to reach agreement for peaceful transfer of the Settlemtnts. India's mission to Paris to reach a settlement in June 1954, however, failed over the question of transfer of control over police during the interim period. Later, fresh negotiations were, however, started, which resulted in the joint declaration by India and France on October 13, 1954.

In pursuance of that declaration, the Congress of elected members of Municipal Communes and the Representative Assembly passed a resolution by overwhelming majority for the merger with India. On November 1, 1954, the *de facto* transfer of French Settlements in India with the Indian Union came into force, following an agreement between the Government of India and France. The treaty of cession was signed in Delhi on the 28th May, 1956. But the *de jure* transfer has not yet taken place.

The State is directly administered by the Government of India through a Chief Commissioner nominated by them. There is an advisory body consisting of six elected Councillors, roughly corresponding to Cabinet Ministers in the other States of India.

The State of Pondicherry consists of—(1) On the Coromondel Coast—(*a*) *Pondicherry* together with adjoining territory divided into 8 communes, (*b*) *Karikal* and dependent districts into 6 communes. (2) On the Andhra Coast—(*a*) *Yanam* with dependent villages. (3) On the Kerala Coast—*Mahe* and adjoining territory.

HIMACHAL PRADESH

Capital	.. Simla	Density of Pop.	.. 102 per sq. m.
Population	.. 11,09,466	Area (sq. m.)	.. 10,922
Principal Languages	.. Hindi & Pahari	Literacy	.. 7·71 p.c.

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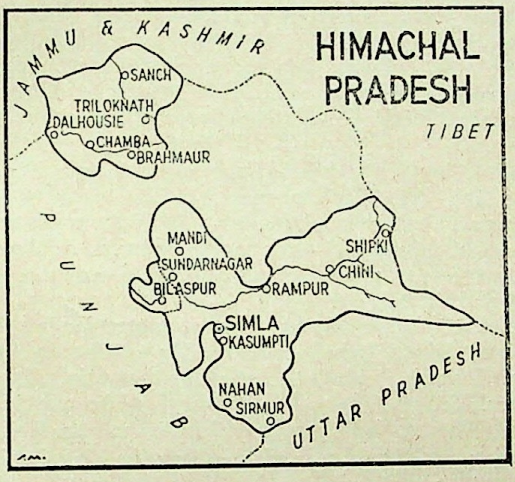
Himachal Pradesh, which was created on April 15, 1948, comprises of 22 former Punjab Hill States and their 9 tributaries nestling in the foothills of the Himalayas between Kashmir in the west and Uttar Pradesh in the east. It has an area of 10,922 sq. miles with a population of 11,09,466. The transfer of these territories to the Republic has consolidated into a sizeable administrative unit a large number of small States inherently incapable of surviving as a separate 'viable' units. Bilaspur was merged into this administration on July 1, 1954. Biggest of the merging States was Mandi. It was inaugurated on 15th April, 1948. Bilaspur has an area of 450 sq. miles and a population of 1,26,099. Heavily wooded and assured of high rainfall, Himachal Pradesh has two blocks, one to the west of the Punjab bounded by the U.P. on the west and at the foot of the Himalayas and



the other to the north of the Punjab and bounded by Jammu and Kashmir. Agriculture is the main-stay of more than 90 p.c. of the population. The average holding of a family of five is not more than three acres. Wheat, maize, barley, rice, ragi, gram and sugarcane and potato are its principal crops ; tea of small quantities being also grown. 35 p.c. of the land is under forests. Forests, which occupy about 35 per cent. of the total area of the Pradesh, play a vital roll in the economy of the people. They provide employment to nearly 5 lacs of the population directly or indirectly, besides being the material source of income to the administration. This State's forests contain the largest quantities of coniferous timber in northern

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India and they are the main source of revenue in the State. The average outturn of timber is about 34 lakh cubic ft. per annum. Potato is the chief cash crop. The State has established itself as a vital source of potatoes, specially seed potatoes for the plains of India. The territory at present produces 2,200 tons of seed potatoes, which supply 20 p.c. of India's total demand. By the end of Second Five-Year Plan, it is proposed to increase the production of seed potato to 12,600 tons per year.

The lower elevations grow in abundance sub-tropical fruits and in the mid-hill elevations, where winter conditions are milder, stone fruits like peaches, plumes, apricots and pomegranates thrive. In the higher elevations of about 6,000 feet a variety of juicy and colourful apples and cherries grow. The delicious apple of Himachal Pradesh is famous all over India. The cultivation of dry fruits, like raisins, grapes and walnuts, is being undertaken in the Chini area bordering on Tibet.

Cattle, sheep and goat rearing is a major cottage industry in the Pradesh. The wool production is the main-stay of the people living in the higher regions of Chini and Pangi and provides a subsidiary source of income to a vast majority of population though quality of the wool is low. At present 12 lakh lb. of wool is produced annually in Himachal Pradesh.

Historically Himachal Pradesh States were founded by Rajput immigrants in the 14th and 15th centuries, who had sought these Himalayan retreats to preserve their cultural freedom. Their cultural tradition brought from Rajasthan greatly contributed to the creation of Kangra School of Art, which marked a special phase of Indian painting that flourished between 1750 and 1850.

The names of Indian States that compose Himachal Pradesh are Chamba, Sirmur, Siket, Baghal, Bhagat, Balsan, Bilaspur, Bushahar, Vhajji Bija, Darkoti, Dhami, Jubbal, Keonthal, Kumarsain, Kunihar, Kuthar, Mahlog, Mangal, Sangri, Tharoaih and Mandi. The tributaries are Delath, Dhadi, Ghund, Khanet, Koti, Madhan, Rawingarh and Theog.

The districts of Himachal Pradesh—Chamba, Mandi, Sirmur, Mahasu, Kennaut and Bilaspur.

MANIPUR

Capital	.. Imphal	Literacy	.. 11·41 p.c.
Population	.. 577,635	Density of Pop.	.. 67 per sq. m.
Area (sq. m.)	.. 8,629		

Manipur is a small State lying in the east on the Indo-Burma border with an area of about 8,629 sq. miles and a population of 5,77,635. The whole of the State is made up of two distinct regions—the Central Valley

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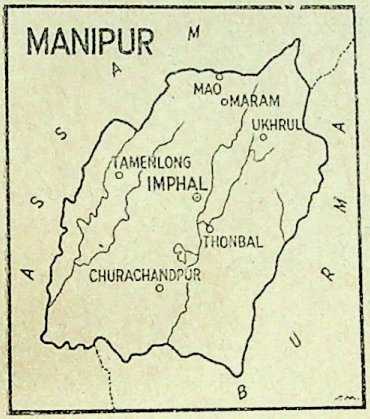
covering an area of 700 sq. miles and the surrounding hill region comprising the rest of the area.



Under the Reorganisation of States Act of 1956, the President has constituted Manipur Territorial Council from 15th August, 1957 which is associated with the Chief Commissioner of Manipur in the discharge of his administrative functions. It consists of 30 elected and two nominated members.

Manipur has a very slender link with India. The only communication with the rest of India with the railhead at Dimapur and the Imphal-Calcutta Air Service, both of which are liable to interruptions specially during the monsoons.

Agriculture is certainly the most important economic occupation of the Manipur people. But it does not engage all the people all the year round. Accordingly there has been certain long established industries in Manipur, such as handlooms, sericultrre and various other handicrafts. Handloom industry is the largest single cottage industry in Manipur. Every woman is weaver irrespective of caste and creed and every house has a weaving unit. This industry provides direct or indirect part-time employment to nearly three lakhs of people, i.e., 50 p.c. of the population of the territory.

The sericulture industry is also one of the oldest cottage industries of this territory. Besides handloom and sericulture, there are also various other small industries run on a cottage scale. These small-scale industries are carpentry, blacksmithy, brick-making, bell-metal works, leather works, bamboo and cane works, etc.

The Central Valley of Manipur is inhabited by Meiteis, Manipur Mussalmans, Lois and various other smaller communities including tribals who have migrated from other areas more recently and settled there. The hill area of over 7,900 sq. miles is inhabited by Nagas and Kukis and other hill tribes. The people generally bear traits of Mongolian features. The State adjoins areas inhabited by people of the Mongolian stock. There is a so-called belt of unadministered area between India and Burma beyond certain portion of the Indian border.

Manipur is also well-known to everyone in connection with the justly famous Manipur dances. Dances form an inseparable item of the social life

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of the common Meitei who has given dance and music a dominant place in life.

The following are *Sub-divisions of Manipur*—(1) Hills District consisting of Churachandpur, Mao, Tamenlong, Tengnoupal and Ukrul; (2) Manipur Plains District consisting of Jiribum, Sadar, Thonbal.

TRIPURA

Capital	.. Agartala	Area (sq. m.)	.. 4,022
Population	.. 639,029	Literacy	.. 15·52 p.c.
Principal Language	.. Bengali	Density of Pop.	.. 159 per sq. m.

Tripura, an ancient hilly State lying to the south-west of Assam and protruding into East Pakistan, has an area of 4,022 sq. miles with a population of 639,029 according to 1951 census. Very rich in her forest resources as also mineral resources, her agricultural produce includes rice, jute, tea, sugarcane, cotton, oilseeds, etc. Besides handwoven cotton goods of unique designs, the State has at present very few industries. Her only means of communication now with the Union are by air and through a newly-constructed road through Assam.

Tripura's frontier with Pakistan runs to about 720 miles on the north-west, west, south and south-east. Its opening with India runs to about 180 miles.

There are many aboriginal races in Tripura, among whom may be mentioned Chakmas, Riang, Tipras, Kukis, Mags, etc.

A Territorial Council of Tripura was inaugurated the 15th August, 1957. It consists of 30 elected members and two nominated members.

Divisions of Tripura—Agartala, Amarpur, Belonia, Dharmanagar, Kailashahar, Kamalpur, Khowai, Sabroom, Sonamura, Udaipur.

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LACCADIVE, MINICOY & AMINDIVI ISLANDS

Capital	..	Kozhikode	Literacy	..	15·23 p.c.
Area	..	11 sq. m.	Density of Pop.	..	1,912 per sq. m.
Population	..	21,035			

With the reorganisation of States, the Government of India have taken over the administration of the Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands, a small sprawling group of coral islands in the Arabian sea, lying between the latitudes of 8° and 12° North lat. With effect from 1st November, 1956, it is a Union Territory under an Administrator with temporary Headquarters at Kozhikode.

There are ten inhabited islands out of a total number of 19 islands; Minicoy, Kalpeni, Kavarathi, Agathi and Andorth lie in the Laccadive Group and Ameni, Kadamath, Kiltan, Chetlath and Bitra in the Amindivi Group. Before the re-organisation, the Laccadives and Minicoy islands were part of Malabar District and the Amindivi Islands of the South Kanara District, forming part of the composite state of Madras. The islands lie from North to South, Minicoy being the southernmost and Chetlath the northernmost; they are within 50-60 miles away from the nearest island and are 125 to 250 miles off the Malabar and South Kanara coast.

These islands are now administered by the Central Government, through their representative, designed as Administrator, Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands, who is for the time being stationed at Kozhikode. The total area of the islands is 11 sq. miles and population 21,035 according to 1951 census.

The abundance of coconut trees constitute at once the adornment as well as the wealth of the island. The islands offer little scope for paddy cultivation and the main item of agricultural development consists of increasing coconut yield. The main occupations of the island are fishing and copra industries.

The inhabitants of these islands are Muslims to a man. Originally Hindus, the Malabar and South Kanara islanders appear to have been converted into Muhamadanism some time in the 14th century. In appearance and dress, the islanders, except those of Minicoy, are indistinguishable from the Moplahs of Malabar and in customs and manners almost the same. Their dialect is old Malayalam with local variations. The Minicoites are more akin to the Maldivi inhabitants and their language, Mahl is said to be allied to primitive Sinhalese.

The major income from the islands is coir monopoly run by the Government.

ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS

Capital	..	Port Blair	Literacy	..	25·77 p.c.
Population	..	30,971	Density of Pop.	..	10 per sq. m.
Area (sq. m.)	..	3,125			

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The Andaman Islands lie in the Bay of Bengal, 120 miles from Cape Negrais in Burma, 780 from Calcutta, and 740 from Madras. Five large islands closely grouped together are called the Great Andamans, and to the south is the island of Little Andaman. There are some 204 islets, the two principal groups being the Ritchie Archipelago and the Labyrinth Islands. The Great Andaman group is about 219 miles long and, at the widest, 32 miles broad. The group, densely wooded, contains many valuable trees, both hard wood and soft wood. The best known of the hard woods is the padauk or Andaman red wood ; gurjan is also well-known and is in great demand for the manufacture of plywood.

The islands possess a number of harbours and safe anchorage, notably Port Blair in the south, Elphinstone and Bonington in the middle and Port Cornwallis in the north. The bulk of the population in Andaman is from India, the indigenous tribes numbering only a few hundreds. These aboriginals have cultural similarities with Samans of Malaya anl Beta of the Philippines. They are a pigmy race. Aborigines may be classified into the following major groups—(1) Andamanese who inhabit the coast-line of Middle Andaman and North Andaman, (2) Onges of Little Andaman, (3) Jarawas of middle and south Andaman and Sentinelese of North Sentinel Island. The inhabitants of Nicobar Islands can be classified into two main groups, viz., the Nicobarese and Shom Pens. From the anthropological point, the Nicovarese have a marked resemblance with the Indo-Chinese race. Unlike Andamanese, the Nicobarese are a well-developed, good humoured lively race.

The land is fertile and yields not only rice but rubber, coconuts, pepper, coffee, timber and other tropical produce. The bulk of the revenue is derived from the exploitation of timber (yielding more than a crore of rupees a year) and the forest wealth includes good qualities of rosewood, sissoo and teak.

The Nicobar Islands are situated to the south of the Andamans. The Nicobar group is a cluster of seven large and twelve small islands lying south of the Andamans between 6·40′ and 9·20′ latitude and 94′ east longitude. There is a fine land-locked harbour between the islands of Kamotra and Nancowry known as Nancowry Harbour. The coconut is the main item of trade, and a major item in their diet ; and they have been cultivating the coconut for as long as any one can remember.

The Andaman and Nicobar Islands have been constituted into a Union Territory with effect from 1st November, 1956 and are administered by the President of India through Chief Commissioner. An Advisory Council, consisting of five members nominated by the Central Government, is associated with the Chief Commissioner.

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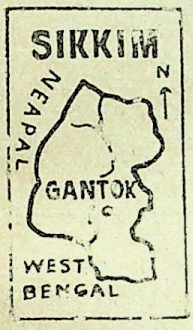
STATES WITH SPECIAL RELATION WITH INDIA—PROTECTORATES

Sikkim

Capital	..	Gangtok	Languages	..	Sikkimese and Gurkhali
Population	..	137,725	Area	..	2,744 sq. m.



Sikkim is bordered on the south by India, on the west by Nepal, on the north and east by Tibet and on the east by Bhutan. Most of Sikkim is in the Himalayas, and in the boundary with Nepal lies Kanchanjunga. Rivers include Tista flowing through deep valleys and intersect the country. The country has an area of 2,744 sq. miles, its extreme length from north to south being 73 miles and its extreme width 55 miles. Its population is 137,725 according to 1951 census. Nepalese predominate, a good deal of 65 p.c. of the population and Bhutias and Lepchas form 34 p.c. of the population. The remaining 1 p.c. described as 'others' in the census is mostly made up of Indian traders. Buddhism is the State religion, and though political leaders claim large majority of the population to be Hindu, the truth is that many of the 65 p.c. Nepalis are Buddhists.

About one quarter of Sikkim's 2,744 sq. m. of mountainous territory is forested and forests are considered one of the country's greatest assets. In the lower ranges and valleys, are valuable plantations of sal, simul, tooni and bamboo. Areas of giant coniferous trees reach to the snow-line in northern Sikkim.

Orchids and Sikkim are synonymous and their rare blooms add colour to this small Himalayan kingdom. Forests of rhododendrons cover the entire mountain sides. Alpine flowers carpet the higher valleys and passes. The citrus industry in Sikkim is closely linked with the economy of the people. Sikkim is the world's largest supplier of cardamom and cardamom is Sikkim's major cash crop. It grows almost like a weed on shaded mountain side around Gangtok.

About 75 to 80 per cent are Nepalese of the first and second generation. They are Hindus (Paharis). About 12 p.c. are Bhutias, immigrants from Tibet, professing Buddhism or Lamaism. The Maharaja belongs to this group. Only 12 to 15 p.c. of the population are Lepchas. They came presumably from Indo-China and are mostly Buddhist. Frictions between these groups have existed for a long time. Due to agitation led by Raja Praja Sammelan composed exclusively of Nepalese and Sikkim National

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Party consisting chiefly of Bhutias and Lepchas and favoured and led by the Maharaja and his son, political changes took place in Sikkim in 1950 after consultation with Indian Adviser and the Maharaja.

Under the new system, Maharaja is the supreme ruler of Sikkim, sharing much of his power with the Indian-appointed Dewan. The Maharaja is assisted by an Executive Council. The Council is composed of one member of each leading party who is appointed by the Maharaja from among those elected to the State Council. The Dewan is the President of the Council.

The Council Members hold office at Maharaja's pleasure and are responsible for executive and administrative functions of the government. The Maharaja has veto over all its decisions.

The State Council has 20 members ; 12 are elected on a communal basis from four constituencies : 6 Nepalese, 6 Lepcha-Bhutias. One general member is elected by voters ; one represents Lamas belonging the monasteries recognised by the Durbar. Remaining six members are nominated by the Maharaja.

Sikkim had long been treated as an Indian State, but with a special position in view of its geographical situation. Political relation between India and Sikkim is dated from 1817 and until the transfer of power in August 1947, it was regulated by a treaty signed in 1861.

A new treaty between India and Sikkim was signed on 5th December, 1950, by which Sikkim continues to be the protectorate of India. India has therefore a special responsibility in respect of the State's finances, external relations and communications. The Government of India is responsible for the defence and territorial integrity of Sikkim. It has the right to take such measures as it considers necessary for the defence of Sikkim or the security of India. In particular, the Government of India has the right to send troops anywhere within Sikkim. Government of Sikkim shall not import any arms, ammunitions or other warlike materials without the previous consent of the Indian Government. The external relations of Sikkim are conducted and regulated solely by the Government of India and Sikkim shall have no dealings with any foreign power. Government of India have the exclusive right of constructing, maintaining and regulating railways, aerodromes, posts, telegraphs, telephones, wireless in Sikkim. Indian nationals within Sikkim are subject to the laws of Sikkim and subjects of Sikkim within India are subject to the laws of India. Government of India agreed to pay Rs. 1 lakh annually to Sikkim. India, by treaty has a *Representative,* permanently resident in Gangtok. Since 1949 an *Indian Dewan* or *Prime Minister,* has become part of Sikkim's administrative machinery.

Maharaja—Sir Tashi Namgyal.

India's Political Officer—Appasaheb B. Pant.

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Bhutan

Capital	.. Punakha	Density per sq. m.	.. 33·6
Population	.. 700,000	Area (sq. m.)	.. 18,000

Bhutan is a small land-locked semi-independent State lying on the south-east slopes of the Himalayas, bordered on the south and west by the Union of India extending for about 196 miles east and west along southern slopes of the Himalayas, bordered on the west, north and east by Tibet and on the south by Bengal and Assam. Its maximum breadth is 90 miles. Its area is 18,000 square miles. The importance of Bhutan to India's defence, occupying as it does strategic place on the north-eastern border alongside Nepal and Sikkim, is obvious ; specially with Tibet completely falling under the control of communist China.

Bhutan did not belong to the category of Indian States in the usual sense of the term. Bhutan is a protectorate State, in respect of foreign relations, of the Government of India. Before the conclusion of the new treaty between the Governments of India and Bhutan, which was signed at Darjeeling on August 8, 1949, the main instruments governing India's relations with Bhutan were the Sinchula Treaty of 1865 as amended by the Treaty of 1910, between the former Government of India and the Government of Bhutan. Under the treaty of 1949, the Government of India undertook to exercise no interferences in internal administration of Bhutan. On their part, the Government of Bhutan agreed to be guided by the advice of the Government of India in regard to their external relations. The Government of India is to pay to Bhutan annually a sum of rupees five lakhs. Government of India also returned to Bhutan Government about 32 sq. miles of territory known as Dwangiri. The treaty provides among other things, that Bhutan shall be free to import with the assistance and approval of India whatever arms, ammunitions, warlike materials, or stores may be required for Bhutan. This arrangement will hold good so long Government of Bhutan is friendly to India and there is no danger to India for such imports. Bhutan also agreed that there should be no export of arms and ammunitions across the frontier of Bhutan either by the Government of Bhutan or by private individuals. The treaty also provides for extradition.

Formerly four original provinces of Bhutan were ruled over by Penlops, competing with each other for an extention of power and influence. Whoever the strongest, become the temporal ruler—the Deb Raja, while spiritual ruler, Dharma Raja was the incarnation of the Buddha as was found, as need arose, among the highest families. In 1907 after the retirement of Deb Raja, the Penlop of the Tangsa district, most powerful for many years, was elected by the Bhutanese Council of Lamas, abbots, councillors and laymen to become hereditary Maharaja of Bhutan. This arrangement was accepted by the British and latter by the Indian Government. The line of spiritual rulers became defunct. The present Maharaja is the third

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in the line of hereditary Maharajas. He rules autocratically with the assistance of the Prime Minister and advised by a Council of Officers and People's representatives. The people of Bhutan considers the country's seclusion as its best defence. The people are afraid of gradually being outnumbered by immigrating Nepalese. At present only about 20 p.c. of the population are Nepalese in the background. The Government have forbidden the settlement of new Nepalese arrivals. The Nepalese, through their Bhutan National Congress, have begun to agitate against this discrimination. In view of the suppression of all criticism of the Government, this party is organised outside Bhutanese borders. Its main programmes are: (1) Abolition of discrimination against Nepalese; (2) Liberalization of the autocratic and arbitrary rule of the Maharaja and introduction of popular government; (3) Change in the Indo-Bhutanese Treaty.

The main political problem for India is that 80 p.c. of the people are of Tibetan stock. They speak a language close to the Tibetan. They are predominantly Lamaist Buddhists, recognising the Dalai Lama as their spiritual head. In outlook and culture, they are Mongolian and they are oriented more towards Tibet than to India. To counteract all these, the Government of India have undertaken some development plans. India is now building direct road communications. Till now Bhutan has most easily been reached from India over Nathu-La, 14,000 ft. high, and across a corner of Tibet, the Chumbi Valley. India has offered Rs. 70,000,000 for the construction of three roads, one via Nathu-La, one through Duars and from Assam.

Ruler—H. H. The Maharaja Jigme Dorji Wangchuk.

STATES BORDERING INDIA

NEPAL

Capital ..	Kathmandu	Area (sq. m.)	54,343
Population (1955) ..	8,337,537	Density per sq. m. ..	161·9

Nepal is a land-locked country between India and Tibet. It is situated on the north-east frontier of India. It is bounded on the north by Tibet, in the east by Sikkim, on the south by Bengal and Uttar Pradesh, on the west by Kumaon from which it is separated by a river. In area it is 54,343 sq. miles, stretching 500 miles between Tibet and India. Its width is about 150 miles. Nepal consists physically of two distinct territories (1) the *tarai* or strip of level, cultivated forest lying along the southern border and (2) the great mountainous tract stretching northwards to Tibet. Along the northern frontier stand many of the highest peaks of the Himalayan range, such as Mount Everest (29,028 ft.), Makalu (27,970 ft.), Kanchanjunga (28,146 ft.), Dhaulagiri (26,800 ft.), Gaurisankar (23,000 ft.) and numerous peaks varying from 20,000 to 24,000 feet. The Valley of

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Nepal, with an area of 250 sq. m. is in the east; this is the only densely populated area and has cities of Kathmandu, Bhatgaon and Patan. Nepal has three distinctions, *i.e.*, it is the only Hindu Independent State of the world, it contains Mount Everest, the highest measured mountain in the World. It produces the toughest fighting men in the world—the Gorkhas. The Tribhuvan Rajpath, the 75 mile highway across three massive Himalayan ranges, which provides, for the first time, a heavy traffic-taking road-link between the Nepalese capital and the southern plains of the Himalayan capital, has been built by the India Government. This road ultimately connects the Indian border station of Raxaul with Kathmandu. The road was opened in 1956 and it was formally handed over to Nepal in 1957. Nepal's two short railroads which connect with lines in India do not reach the valley, which is served by a suspended rope cable.

The Himalayan Kingdom is a self-sufficient country as far as food is concerned. It is claimed that the world's best rice is produced in this country. Some of the surplus agricultural products are exported to India and other countries. Among its mineral resources are gold, silver, copper, lead and iron ores, but the mining of these underground resources is still undeveloped.

The races occupying Nepal are of mixed Mongol origin. To the north in the higher mountain and valley, dwell the Bhotias or Tibetans; to the west the Gurungs and Magars. The Murmis, Gorkhalis and Newars occupy the central parts, Kiratis, Limbus and Lepchas the eastern. There are also Brahmins and Chhatris in the hills. There are also lesser tribes in the terai and other malarious districts known as Khumhas, Tharus, Manjis, etc. but generally classed together as Aculias or dwellers in the districts. The Gorkhalis or Gorkhas are the descendants of the Brahmins and Rajputs who were driven out of India by the Muslims and took refuge in the western hilly lands where they ultimately became dominant and intermarried with the other races. The Bhotias, Newars, Limbus, Keratis and Lepchas are all Buddhists, but their religion has so mixed up with Hinduism that it is now hardly recognisable. Magars and Gurungs are Hindus.

The ruling power was for a long time the hereditary Ranas. Though theoretically the king was the supreme ruler but the real power was vested in the Prime Minister who was also head of the Army. This domination by an aristocratic hereditary party was always resented by general mass of the people and this unrest came to a head in 1950, when insurgents rose against the Rana rule and established the monarchy with all its powers which it had lost 104 years before, thus demolishing the hereditary powers of the Ranas. After eight years, during which various parties and individuals tried their hand at Government, the first general elections took place in February, 1959, resulting in the overwhelming victory for the Nepal's Congress which formed to a Government under B. P. Koirala. For

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the first time in its long and turbulent history, Nepal elected its first Democratic Parliament in 1959 after a general election as envisaged in its new Constitution. The Nepal Congress came out as a leading party and formed a government under B. P. Kairala but in 1960 the King dissolved the ministry and took the reigns of the government.

In December 1955, Nepal was formally admitted to the United Nations.

Two treaties—one treaty of peace and friendship and other a treaty of trade and commerce were signed between the Government of India and Nepal on July 31, 1950. In the first treaty, two Governments agree mutually to acknowledge and respect the complete sovereignty, territorial independence of each other. India and Nepal will inform each other of "any serious friction or misunderstanding" with a neighbouring State likely to impair their relations.

Two Governments agreed to appoint Consul-Generals. Government of Nepal shall be free to import from and through India arms, ammunitions, or warlike materials and equipment necessary for the security of Nepal. Both Governments agreed to grant on a reciprocal basis, to the nationals of one country in the territories of the other the same privileges in the matter of residence, ownership of property, participation in trade and commerce, movement and other privileges of a similar nature. In economic matters, each Government guarantees "national treatment" to the citizens of the other.

TIBET

Area (sq. m.) .. 463,000 Capital .. .. Lasha
Population .. 30 lakhs

The elevated plateau of Tibet is bounded on the north by the Chinese province of Sinkiang (Chinese Turkestan) from which it is separated by the Kwen Lun Ranges ; on the east by the Chinese provinces of Chinghai and Sikiang ; on the west by Kashmir and on the south by the Himalayan Hill States of Nepal, Bhutan and Sikkim and by India in upper Assam. The area is approximately 4,63,000 sq. miles and its population number approximately 30 lakhs. As a result of the theocratic nature of Tibetan society, nearly one-third of the male population is monks. The upper and middle class townsmen as well as the monasteries themselves engage in considerable entrepot trade on the caravan routes to India and China, the principal exports being wool, hides and skins and borax and chief imports being manufactured goods from India and China.

China conquered Tibet early in the 18th century and attempted to establish their hold over the country. The Chinese suzerainty was loose and largely nominal. In the early years of the 20th century, Chinese Imperial Government tried to establish greater control over Tibet. In 1910 Chinese invaded Tibet and Dalai Lama fled to India (Darjeeling) and was deposed by imperial decree. But after the overthrow of the Manchu

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dynesty by the Chinese Revolution of 1911, the authority of China as suzerain power in Tibet was speedily challenged and overthrown. The Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa in 1912 and drove out the Chinese garrisons stationed in Lhasa. The Government of the Chinese Republic at Peking sent a punitive expedition to Tibet, which was prevented from recapturing Tibet by the representation made by the British Government which declared that such action constituted a violation of the treaty of 1906 between Britain and China. Before the end of 1912 the last of the Chinese forces had been driven out of Tibet and on January 13, 1913 the Dalai Lama proclaimed the independence of Tibet. In May 1913 the British Government called a tripartite conference at Simla for defining the status of Tibet. The result of the conference at Simla between British, Chinese and Tibetan representatives was the Simla Convention whereby nominal Chinese suzerainty over Tibet was recognised and China was given the right to maintain a mission in Lhasa but was forbidden to interfere with Tibetan internal administration. It also differentiated between the complete autonomy of Inner Zone and the semi-autonomy of Outer Zone of Tibet. Though signed by the Chinese representative, the Chinese Government declined to ratify this treaty due to its unwillingness to accept the geographical definition of the frontiers of outer Tibet as proposed in the treaty. Thus the Chinese never formally recognised themselves as being the suzerain power in Tibet. In effect, they always claimed sovereign rights in Tibet. They have consistently regarded Tibet as a constituent part of the Chinese territory and the Tibetan people as one of China's five nationalities.

With the establishment of Communist Government in China, the old Chinese urge for expansion was given a new strong impetus. On October 25, 1950 Communist China sent her troops into Tibet "to liberate three million Tibetans from imperialist aggression, to complete the unification of the whole of China and to safeguard the frontier regions of the country." After initial advance into Tibet, Chinese troops came to a halt east of Lhasa. In March 1951, the Tibetan Government sent a mission to China for negotiating peace and subsequently a 17-point Sino-Tibetan agreement was concluded in Peking on March 23, 1951, which annexed Tibet into the Republic of China. Tibet was granted regional autonomy within the confines of Chinese sovereignty. After this, though Tibet was assured of its autonomy and her own peculiar way of life and culture, the Communist Government of China tried to impose totalitarian uniformity over Tibet. They began to take necessary steps to integrate Tibet. In 1952, they divided Tibet into three administrative zones which pruned the Dalai Lama's secular authority to nearly one-fourth of its original within a year of signing the Sino-Tibetan agreement. The Chinese land reform and other so-called progressive measures inflamed the minds of the Lamas and general population and actually revolts began to take shape from 1956.

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The revolts now began to spread over the whole area of outer Tibet and slowly crept up to Lhasa. With the intensification of the revolt in 1958 and early 1959, Dalai Lama was asked to help the Chinese in the suppression of revolts and to visit Peking, which Dalai Lama refused. While the fighting was going on in the capital, Dalai Lama slipped off from the city and after 15 days of perilous journey reached India.

Relations with India—With the establishment of Communist suzerainty over Tibet an agreement was signed between India and China on the relations between India and Tibet on 20th April, 1954. In the text of the agreement the following five basic principles are mentioned—mutual respect for each other's territorial integrity and sovereignty, mutral non-aggression, mutual non-interference in each other's internal affairs, equality and mutual benefit and peaceful co-existence. The main terms are as follows—(1) China may establish trade agencies at New Delhi, Calcutta and Kalimpong, (2) Government of India may establish trade agencies at Yatung, Gyantse and Gartok, (3) Government of China agrees to specify (a) Yatrng, (b) Gyantse and (c) Phari as markets for trade ; the Government of India agrees that trade may be carried on in India including places like (a) Kalimpong, (b) Siliguri, (c) Calcutta according to customary practice, (4) Pilgrims from India may visit Kailash and Manassarowar in Tibet region and pilgrims from Tibet may visit Banaras, Sarnath, Gaya and Sanchi in India. Pilgrims customarily visiting Lhasa may continue to do so in accordance with usual custom.

PORTUGUESE INDIA

Population (1951)	.. 637,591	Capital	.. Cidade de Goa
Area (sq. m.)	.. 1,537		(Panjim)

The Portuguese settlements in India are the following—Goa, Daman, Diu. Goa lies 200 miles to the south of Bombay, Daman at the entrance of the Gulf of Cambay and about 110 miles to the north of Bombay, and Diu in the Saurashtra Peninsula about 275 miles by sea from Bombay. Diu is a small island separated from the mainland by a narrow stretch of sea. The enclaves of Dadra and Nagar Haveli, which formed part of Daman, have been taken over by the Goan nationalists who have set up their own administration.

The people of Goa speak Marathi and Konkani, the latter being a dialect of Marathi, which is spoken along the West Coast of India. The language of Daman and Diu is Gujarati.

Agriculture is the main occupation and rice, coconuts, cashu-nuts, betel-nuts and fruit account sizeable portion of the income of the Settlements.

Head of the administration in the Settlements is the Governor-General appointed by the Portuguese Government in Lisbon. Daman and

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Diu each has a Governor. The Governor-General is assisted by a Council of thirteen, of whom eight are nominated. The function of the Council is purely advisory. Since August 1955, a Legislative Council composed of 23 members, of whom eleven are elected, five nominated by the Governor-General and seven by public bodies and associations have been added by the administrative structure.

Mormugao is the chief port and is open to ocean-going vessels of every size from all parts of the world.

The people of the Portuguese settlements have started for merger movement with India. Severe repressive measures have been adopted by the Portuguese Government against the nationalist movement, which is being suppressed by all means.

PAKISTAN

Capital ..	Rawalpindi	Dacca	411,000
Area (sq. m.) ..	364,737	Chittagong ..	194,000
Population ..	75,842,165	Hyderabad	202,000
Pop. per sq. m. ..	208	Rawalpindi ..	237,000
Principal Cities :			
Karachi	1,000,000		
Lahore	850,000		

Pakistan which means "Holyland", is a member of the Commonwealth ; one of the two independent countries into which the former Empire of India was divided in 1947. It consists of two separate parts—Western Pakistan and Eastern Pakistan, separated by about 1,100 miles of Indian territory.

West Pakistan—The Establishment of West Pakistan Act, 1955 which came into force on 3rd October, 1955 incorporated (1) the former Governors' provinces of the Punjab, North-West Frontier and Sind, (2) the former Chief Commissioners' provinces of Baluchistan and Karachi, (3) the States of Bahawalpur and Khairpur and the Baluchistan States Union, (4) the Tribal Areas of Baluchistan, Punjab, and the N. W. Frontier and the State of Amb., Chitral, Dir and Swat into the Province of West Pakistan from October 14, 1956. An executive order issued on August, 2, 1960 proclaimed Rawalpindi as capital of Pakistan in place of Karachi and Karachi in future would be known as Federal Territory of Karachi.

East Pakistan—Comprises the eastern territories of the partitioned province of Bengal and Sylhet, formerly a district of Assam.

The western portion of Pakistan contains much desert and barren rocky tracts. At the same time, it contains the great Valley of the Indus and the fertile and well-watered plains of the Western Punjab. In addition, in the former Sind Province, there is the vast area served by the great irrigation systems stemming from the Sukkur Barrage on the Indus.

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The eastern portion is tropical, heavily watered, lying along and largely below the valley of the Brahmaputra, widely intersected by waterways.

Agriculture is the main occupation of the people; nearly 80 per cent. of the people, are so engaged. The main food crops are rice and wheat. The main commercial crops are cotton, rape and mustard and jute.

The Constitution of Pakistan was passed on February 29, 1956. Pakistan became a Federal Republic on March 23, 1956. In October, 1958, however this Constitution was abrogated and Pakistan came under martial law. General Mohammed Ayub Khan, Commander-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army, was appointed the Chief Martial Law Administrator. On October 28, 1958 General Mohammed Ayub Khan also became President of Pakistan and an eleven-man Presidential Cabinet was appointed to administrator the country until the re-establishment of democrative institutions.

Presidential Cabinet

President and Minister of Defence and Kashmir Affairs—General Ayub Khan.
Foreign Affairs—Manzoor Quadir.
Rly. & Communication—Khan F. M. Khan.
Industries & Power—Abdul Kasem Khan.
Commerce—M. Hafizur Rahman.
Finance—M. Shaoib.
Health, Labour & Social Welfare—Lt. General W. A. Burki.
Law—Mohammad Ibrahim.
Rehabilitation, Food, Agriculture etc.—Lt. General M. Azam Khan.
Education—Habibur Rahman.
Information & Broadcasting—Z. A. Bhutto.
Interior—Lt. General K. M. Shaikh.

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IRON AND STEEL IN INDIA

Iron in India—When Alexander the Great retreated from India, he took with him a precious gift which was neither gold nor diamond, but it is recorded that King Porus presented him 30 pounds of high quality iron. There are several ancient objects of non-rusting iron still available in India. One of these is the famous Delhi Iron Pillar in the compound of Kutub Minar. It is ascribed to the 3rd or 4th century A.D.

That India was the home of a flourishing steel industry is not surprising. India possesses some of the world's largest reserves of iron ore, mainly hematites and magnetities with iron content ranging between 60 and 70 per cent. Extensive deposits of iron ore occur in several parts of India, namely, Bihar and Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra and Mysore. A few, even amongst the greatest producing countries of the world, can claim a high percentage. The metal content of Indian iron ore is up to 61 per cent. as against 15 to 31 per cent. in other countries. The iron ores of India can be conveniently divided into three groups, namely, hematite ores, magnetite ores and laterite ores and iron-stone shales. Large deposits of hematite ores are known in Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and Bombay. Magnetite ores occur in Madras, Mysore, Bihar, Orissa and Himachal Pradesh. Extensive reserves of laterite ores and iron-shales are present in West Bengal, but these are not used at present. India's iron ore reserves are estimated to be of the order of 2,100 crore tons and the major part of it is high grade. Yet with all these advantages, India today produces only about 1.5 million tons of steel annually, compared to America's 105 million tons and Britain's 17 million tons.

IRON DEPOSITS IN INDIA—India possesses large and rich deposits of iron ore in various regions. The iron ores of India may be classified into three or four types from the point of view of resources. The most important from the point of view of resources, as well as of manufacture, are the *hematite ores* which are found in several parts of the country, particularly in Bihar and Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Bombay and Mysore. The next in importance is *magnetite ores*. The third type is composed of *iron carbonate*; of this only one large deposit is known and that in the Raniganj coal field of Bengal. Finally we have *laterites* which are widespread in many parts of India and are found particularly in large deposits in parts of Central-Western and South-Western India. Being very impure and containing only about 25 per cent. metallic iron, it is not considered an one of importance these days. The most important group of deposits, Hematite deposits in the country, are those of the former Orissa States (Mayurbhanj-

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Bonai-Keonjhar) and adjoining parts of Singhbhum. These deposits were discovered by Mr. P. N. Bose who was employed by Sir J. Tata. Several deposits also occur in parts of Madhya Pradesh and Bombay. There are a few deposits in the present Maharastra State located in the Dharwar district. Mysore State is quite rich in iron ores. Magnetite ore deposits are scattered over the country but the chief ores are to be found in Mysore, Madras and Andhra States. In Madras there are quite a few large deposits in the districts of Salem and Tichirapalli where numerous hills composed of such ores occur. Lemonite and carbonate ores occur in the Raniganj coalfields in Bengal.

MAIN UNITS—*The Indian Iron & Steel Co., Ltd.*, has its two plants situated at Burnpur and Kulti, approximately 140 miles from Calcutta. *Kulti Works* of the Company is the oldest unit in India where pig iron is produced by modern methods. The annual capacity of the Company is approximately 250,000 tons of pig iron. The foundry consists of six separate sections, each laid out for producing a particular type of casting—(1) The General Castings Foundry ; (2) The Vertically Cast Pipe Foundry ; (3) Two Spun Pipe Foundries ; (4) Non-Ferrous Foundry ; (5) The Light Castings Foundry ; (6) Steel Castings Foundry. A special castings foundry is nearing completion and will manufacture C. I. special castings required for C. I. pipelines. *Burnpur Works* of the company was incorporated on 11th October, 1918, under the name of the Indian Iron & Steel Co. Ltd. On 1st January, 1953, the Steel Corporation of Bengal Ltd., was merged with the same.

These integrated Works now comprise the following plants : (1) Coke Oven (2) By-product (3) Contact Acid (4) Blast Furnace (5) Bessemer Converter (6) Melting Shop (7) Blooming Mill (8) 34″ Mill (9) 18″ Section Mill (10) Sheet Mills (11) Continuous Sheet Bar & Billet Mill. The Indian Iron have, like Tatas, undertaken large expansion programme designed to increase their capacity from about 360,000 tons of furnished steel to about 800,000 tons per year. The expansion is practically complete.

The Mysore Iron & Steel Works is run by a Board of Management with the State Industries' Minister as the Chairman. In 1918, the Government of Mysore erected a small charcoal blast-furnace at Bhadravati to produce 20,000 tons of pig iron a year. A small steel plant was added in 1936 to ensure more economic operation of the Unit. The present capacity of the Mysore Iron & Steel Works is about 35,000 tons per year. It is capable of producing a larger tonnage of saleable steel by rolling billets purchased from outside. The steel plant expansion scheme under the Second Five-Year Plan is expected to raise its capacity to 100,000 tons a year. The expansion scheme also consists of the building of a spun pipe plant, sintering plant, ferro-silicon plant, expansion of the steel melting capacity, extension of the rolling mill capacity and extension and modernisation of the ancillary works of these schemes. Now we have at Bhadra-

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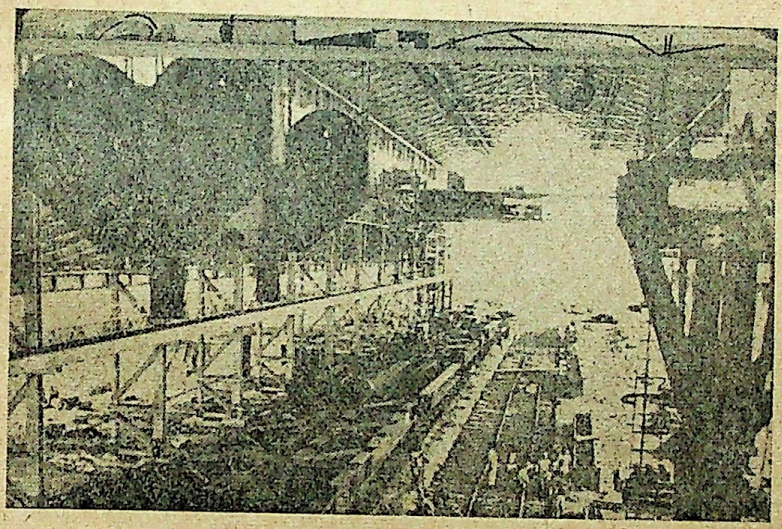
vati, a 7000-ton per year ferrosilicon plant, which is satisfying the present rtquirements of the Indian Iron and Steel Industry.

Tata Iron & Steel Co. Ltd.—Tata plant is the oldest in India. It is situated at Jamshedpur, 156 miles from Calcutta. The plant produced its first iron in 1911 and its first steel in 1912. Owing to the old age of the plant, it became necessary to modernise the plant. The two expansion programmes have been undertaken by the company—(1) one in 1952 and the other in 1955. This has not only modernised the plant but has also doubled its capacity of a million tons of ingots. The second expansion scheme was undertaken in collaboration with an American firm, Kaiser Engineering Corporation. The scheme was completed in 1959-60. Tatas have also undertaken some ancillary works, such as, new ferro-manganese plant at Joda, a new refractory plant at Belpahar in collaboration with Didier International, a ferro sulphate washing plant and a plant for recovery of scrap iron from slag by Hickett process.



S. C. Shop of Durgapur Steel Plant

STEEL PLANTS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR :

The Department of Iron and Steel—On the 7th April, 1957, the Union Ministry of Steel, Mines and Fuel was constituted which consists of two Departments—the Department of Iron and Steel and the Department of Mines and Fuel.

The Department of Iron & Steel deals with the Steel Plants at Rourkela,

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Bhilai, Durgapur and Mysore Iron & Steel Works. With the formation of the Department of Iron and Steel, work relating to the administration of the Iron and Steel (Control) Order, imports and exports of iron and steel, establishments of Iron and Steel Control organisation, the steel projects in the private sector, re-rolling mills and ferro-alloy industry were transferred to this Department from the late Ministry of Heavy Industries. There is one attached office under the control of the Department at Calcutta with two regional offices each in Bombay and Madras. The head-office of the Iron and Steel Controller at Calcutta is under the charge of an Iron and Steel Controller who is responsible for the administration of the Iron and Steel (Control) Order 1956 and is also responsible for the issue of licences for export of iron and steel and is engaged in barter deals for considering foreign exchange and for the sale of iron and steel and steel products at uniform prices at all rail-heads in the country.

Hindustan Steel Limited is a company formed under the Indian Companies Act of 1956 with an authorised capital of Rs. 3,000 million, divided into 3 million equity shares of Rs. 100 each. The company is owned entirely by the Government of India and all the shares have been subscribed by the President. The head-office of the company is at Ranchi.

Iron and Steel Advisory Council was constituted in November 1959 to advise Government on all matters of a general character relating to iron and steel and in particular to problems pertaining to production, distribution transport, research, import and export.

Rourkela—is the first of these Government steel projtcts to take shape. It is in Orissa, 275 miles from Calcutta. On 15th August, 1953, the Government of India signed a contract with a Krupp-Demag Combine for engineering and erecting a 500,000-ton plant. The final project was accepted only in 1956 and by that time the capacity had been increased to 1,000,000 tons. It is supplied with ore from Taldih and coal from Kargali and Jharia. Washeries have been established at Kargali for washing coal. The uniue feature about this plant is that 75% of the steel is made by the new L.-D. process. This process consists in blowing oxygen at high pressure into molten iron in special vessels called converters. Oxygen for this process is obtained from atmosphere air. This results in the release of substantial quantities of nitrogen as by-products. This nitrogen and the hydrogen of the coke oven gases will be synthesised to produce ammonia and nitric acid. The products of this synthesis will, in turn, be combined with limestone fines to form into nitro-limestone. The fertilizer plant which is being built up for the purpose will have an annual capacity of 580,000 tons of nitro-limestone.

The production of iron in Rourkela commenced as early as February 1959. Production of steel in the first open hearth began in April, 1959, and the second in August, 1959. The first L.D. steel was blown in December,

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1959 in which month the first slab was rolled in the blooming and slabbing mill.

Bhilai—An agreement was signed between the Government of India and the Russian Government for starting a second steel factory at Bhilai on 2nd February, 1956 for the construction of a modern integrated iron and steel plant to provide 7,70,000 tons of saleable steel and 3,00,000 tons of foundry grade pig iron per year at a cost of Rs. 131 crores. The steel plant draws iron ore from Dhalli-Rajhara hills nearby and coal from Kobra and Kanhan. The steel works will consist of three coke oven batteries each of 65 coke ovens, three blast furnaces of 1,135 tons a day capacity each, six open hearth furnaces each of 250 tons capacity, a blooming mill, a continuous billet mill, a rail and structural mill, a merchant mill, a power plant of 24,000 kw. capacity and necessary ancillaries. When completed, the plant will produce 1,145,000 tons of metallurgical coke, 1,110,000 tons of iron and 1,00,000 tons of crude steel. The first coke oven battery and the first blast furnace were commissioned in 1958. The first open hearth furnace to make steel was commissioned in October, 1959.

Durgapur—is the third steel plant in the public sector. *The Indian Steel Works Construction Company Ltd.* (*ISCON*) signed a contract with the Government of India on 31st October, 1956 to build an integrated steel works at Durgapur in West Bengal, which is 110 miles from Calcutta. Under the agreement, *ISCON* is to erect the plant and hand it over to Hindusthan Steel Ltd. *ISCON,* under the Chairmanship of Sir Cyril Jones, was formed as a consortium of 13 British engineering and electrical firms.

Small Pig Iron Plants—The steel delegation which visited China in 1959 recommended the design and construction of a few small blast furnaces and converters to be taken in hand in areas which are likely to be favourable for the location of such plants. The Government sanctioned a number of schemes in the private sector for the production of pig iron. Two small blast furnaces each with a capacity of 15,000 tons per annum—one in the State of Madras and another in the State of Orissa—have gone into operation. Seven more have been sanctioned—two in Madras, three in Bombay and in West Bengal and one in small scale in Madhya Pradesh.

Electric Furnaces—Electric Furnaces use scrap as raw material. It been estimated that by 1961, the raisings of scrap would be of the order of about 600,000 tons a year. In view of fairly large surplus scrap that is likely to be available and the difficulty of exoprting light scrap, the Government have sanctioned 28 electric furnaces to be set up in different parts of the country, *i.e.,* 18 for billets for use in their own re-rolling mills, 4 for making special steel products, 3 for alloy steels and 3 on small scale basis. The total capacity of these furnaces will be about 1,87,000 tons a year.

Secondary Producers and Re-Rollers—The secondary producers and re-rollers operate either on the semis sold to them by the main steel-works

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or on scrap. The secondary producers include the *Tinplate Company of India* who make tinplate, the *Indian Wire and Steel Products* who roll rods from billets and draw wire from the rods, the *Indian Steel Rolling Mills*, Nagapatam, who make bars and rods and hoops, the *Eagle Rolling Mills* who make bars and light sections, *Guest, Keen, Williams* who make rods and the *Indian Tubes*, Jamshedpur and *Kalinga Tubes*, Chowdhar who make pipes from skelp. Besides these there are 63 re-rolling mills proper who roll bars and rods and light sections from billets. All other re-rollers use scrap as raw material who number 81. To meet the demand of re-rolling industry, the steel works at Jamshedpur, Burnpur, Bhilai and Durgapur will produce billets. The Government have also sanctioned the starting of re-rolling mills—one unit each in Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and Bihar.

Steel Wire—At present, high tensile wire and other special types of wire are not manufactured in this country and demand for these categories are being met by import. The Government have sanctioned 37 new units for a total capacity of 1,42,400 tons per annum for various types of wire. The main existing producer of wire and wire products in the *Indian Steel and Wire Products Ltd.* who propose to manufacture high tensile and other special types of wire.

Ferro-manganese Industry—Ferro-manganese is mostly used in the manufacture of steel. Although India has large reserves of manganese ore, the primary raw material for the manufacture of ferro-manganese, it had until recently been exported abroad to be processed in the consuming countries. So far, the Government have licensed nine firms for a total capacity of 2,33,700 tons of ferro-manganese per annum.

ORES IN INDIA

(In millions of tons)

HEMATITE ORES :

	Known reserves.	Possible reserves.
Bihar & Orissa :		
Singhbhum	1000	8000
Orissa :		
Bonai-Mayurbhanj-Keonjhar	1700	
Madhya Pradesh :		
Drug	110	
Bastar	1350	3600
Jabalpur	100	
Chanda	22	
	1582	7000

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Deccan :		
Maharashtra, Dharwar, Goa, Ratnagiri	30	300
Mysore State	900	2300
Total hematite ..	5212	21,200
MAGNETITE ORES :		
Madras	300	1000
Andhra	300	500
Mysore	215	500
Himachal	60	60
Total magnetite ..	875	2,060
CARBONATE ORES :		
Bengal	500	2000
Grand Total ..	6,587	25,260

LABOUR IN INDIA

LABOUR REFORM IN INDIA—India Government's effort to afford protection to labour had a strange origin. Legislation, prior to 1818, attempted merely to regulate conditions of labour so as to help the employers and to ensure that they had a docile labour force at their disposal. The Factory Acts of 1818 and 1891 were passed chiefly because of the anxiety caused to Lancashire by the growing cotton industry of Bombay.

For 20 years after 1891, there was no further advance. In 1911, new Factories Act was passed restricting the hours of work in textile factories to 12.

The period after World War I was an era of progressive labour legislation. The Trade Union movement was born and India's association with I.L.O. supplied a powerful urge in favour of humane conditions in mines, factories and mills. In 1922 the Indian Factories Act was amended to embrace many more factories and reduction of working hours. The Mines Act was similarly amended in 1923 for limitation of hours. It also prohibited employment in mines persons under 13 years of age. A Workman's Compensation Act providing for accidents sustained or disease con-

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tracted by workmen, was also passed in 1923. In order to preserve industrial peace, the Government enacted Indian Trade Union Act, 1926 as well as Trade Disputes Act, 1929.

Due to post-war depression and the resultant industrial unrest the Government of India appointed a *Royal Commission on Labour* in India in 1929 under the presidency of Rt. Hon. J. H. Whitley.

Between 1931 and the advent of provincial autonomy in 1937, the Central Government effected a number of reforms revising or enacting legislations regarding factory workers, miners, plantation labour, railwaymen, maritime workers, dock labourers, etc., in the light of the recommendations of Royal Commission on Labour.

Quickened interest in labour reform was shown by new autonomous Provincial Governments which came into being in 1937 and which enacted a series of legislative measures for the amelioration of the working classes. But when the Congress Governments resigned in 1939, there was an end to this progress in the provinces. War years 1939—45 were a remarkable expansion of Indian industries and unparalled rise in employment. At the same time, industrial relations were subjected to increasing strain. There were numerous struggles in respect of wages, dearness allowance, bonus and sharing of war profits. Added to these was the new-born political consciousness among the workers.

With the advent of independence, the labour unrest was greatly intensified and the National Government began to overhaul the entire machinery of labour, so as to stabilize industrial tranquility. The Government's statement on Industrial Policy made in Parliament on April 8, 1948, recognised "the proper role of labour in industry and the need to secure for labour the wages and working conditions." It urged that "Labour for its part must give equal recognition to its duty in contributing to the increase in the national income without which a permanent rise in the standard of living cannot be achieved."

ORGANISATION OF LABOUR MINISTRY—Many of the subjects concerning labour are in the Concurrent List under the Constitution but the Centre has an overall responsibility in the matter of labour welfare and employment and training generally. The Ministry lays down national policies in regard to the working conditions for labour, safety and health in industrial undertakings, trade unions, industrial disputes, regulation of wages, etc. It coordinates the activities in the States and ensures uniformity of action. It bears direct responsibility for the implementation of social security schemes, such as, Health Insurance and Provident Fund Schemes for factory employees.

LABOUR AND THE CONSTITUTION—Article 23 of the Constistitution prohibits *begar* and other similar forms of forced labour and Article 24 lays down that no child below the age of fourteen years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other

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hazardous employments. Articles 39, 42 and 43 of the Part IV of the Constitution lays down certain "Directive Principles of the State Policy" regarding labour, such as, citizens have the right to an adequate means of livelihood; the operation of the economic system should not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment; there should be equal pay for equal work for both men and women; provision for just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief; Living wages etc. for workers, etc., etc.

LABOUR LAWS

The Labour Legislation can be divided into following heads:— (1) *Factories,* (2) *Mines,* (3) *Plantations,* (4) *Transport,* (5) *Legislation relating to workers in shops and commercial establishments,* (6) *Safety and Welfare,* (7) *Wages,* (8) *Social Security,* (9) *Industrial relations and Disputes,* (10) *Miscellaneous.*

1. **Factories**—During British period Factory Acts were passed in 1881, 1891, 1911, 1922 and 1934 for extending protection and granting relief to Indian labour. These legislations contained measures which prohibited the employment of children in any factory and fixed the working hours for factory labour. The Indian Factory Act of 1934 based on the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour was the most important of factory laws. Under this Act, working hours were limited to 11 hours a day for seasonal and 10 hours a day for perennial factories. But 1934 Act had many defects. The Factory Act of 1948 was passed for removing the defects of the 1934 Act and for introducing comprehensive measures aiming at labour welfare and improvement of industrial efficiency. The main provisions of 1948 Act are as follows—The Act covers all industrial establishments employing 10 or more workers where power is used or 20 or more workers where power is not used. The new Act removes distinction between perennial and seasonal factories. By introducing elaborate provisions in regard to health, safety and welfare of the workers, the 1948 Act seeks to raise the productve efficiency of Indian labour. The minimum age for employment for young persons is fixed at 14 and the upper age of for adolescence is raised from 17 to 18 years. As regards hours of work, the Act lays down 48 hours a week and 9 hours a day for adult workers. For persons below 18, the hours of work are fixed at 4½ hours a day. Employment of children and women between 7 P.M. and 6 A.M. is prohibited. For overtime work, twice the normal rate of wage is to be paid. Every worker is entitled to leave with wages after one year's continuous service at the following rate—Adult one day for every 20 days of work; persons below 18—one day for every 15 days of work.

2. **Mines**—Hours of all employees, both surface workers and underground workers in mines, are fixed at 48, and no worker is allowed to work more than nine hours a day on the surface or eight hours a day

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below the surface. No person employed in a mine is allowed to work more than six days a week. The other principal enactments in this sphere since 1934 are: *Coal Mines Safety (Stowing) Act, 1939; Mines Maternity Benefit Act, 1941; Mica Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1946; Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1947 and Coal Mines Provident Fund and Bonus Schemes Act, 1948. Coalmines Bonus Scheme* came into operation in 1947. Under this Scheme the worker, by virtue of a minimum qualifying rate of attendance, is entitled to receive a third of his basic earnings as bonus.

3. **Plantations**—The important legislation regarding plantation labour is the *Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act XXI of 1932.* The Act deals mainly with the recruitment of workers for the gardens in Assam. *Plantation Labour Act of* 1951 which applies to all tea, coffee, rubber or cinchona plantations on which 30 or more persons are employed, fixes a 54-hours week for adults and 40-hour week for adolescents and children and prohibits employment of children under 12 and night work for women and children between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m.

4. **Transport**—Prior to 1937, legislations relating to conditions of work in communications were limited to railways and port services, such as, Indian Ports Act, 1908 and Indian Dock Labourers Act, 1934, regulating safety in docks. Since 1937 both the scope and the content of the protective labour legislation in this sphere have been greatly extended. The most important of the measures adopted are the raising of the minimum age for employment of children in railways and docks from 12 to 15 years, the progressive extension of the Hours of Employment Regulations to all railways, the regulations adopted to promote the continuous employment of dock workers and elimination, as far as practicable, of the evils of casual employment, and the extension of the principle of statutory regulation of working conditions to workers engaged in motor transport.,

5. **Legislation Relating to Workers in Shops and Commercial Establishments**—Granting of protection to workers in shops and commercial establishments was first taken by the Government of Bombay in 1939. Other States, such as Bengal and Punjab, followed suit and passed similar Acts in 1940. The Punjab Act was extended to Delhi. During 1947 Acts on the subject were passed in three more provinces, namely, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Madras. In Assam a Shops and Establishments Act was passed in 1948. Apart from these provincial Acts, there is a Central Act, known as *Weekly Holidays Act,* 1942. This Act is permissive in character. All the above Acts are meant for those States which have no legislation on the subject, for the daily and weekly hours of work. All the Acts contain provisions for regulating the payment of wages. *The Working Journalists (Conditions of Service) and Miscellaneous Provisions Act of* 1955 contains provisions pertaining to the hours of work, weekly day of rest and leave with pay.

6. **Safety and Welfare**—(1) In Factories Act, 1948, the Mines Act

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1952 and the *Plantations Labour Act,* 1951 provisions have been made for canteens, creches, rest shelters, washing facilities, medical aid and the appointment of labour officers. (2) *Indian Dock Labourer's Act,* 1934 is concerned with the protection against accidents of workers employed in loading and unloading of ships. (3) *The Coal Mines Safety (Stowing) Act of* 1939 provides for the creation of a fund to assist stowing measures. (4) For permanent financing the welfare schemes, several Acts, such as, *Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act,* 1947, *Mica Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act,* 1946, *U.P. Sugar and Power Alcohol Industries Welfare Fund Act,* 1953 and *Bombay Labour Welfare Fund,* 1953 have been passed. *Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act,* 1947 provides for the setting up of a Fund to be called the *Caol Mines Labour Housing and General Welfare Fund* which will maintain two accounts, namely, the Housing Account and General Welfare Account. Fund also runs adult education centres, women's welfare centres, etc. (5) *Mica Mines Labour Welfare Fund,* 1946 provides medical, educational and recreational facilities for mica mine workers. Under the *Plantations Labour Act,* 1951, all plantations are required to provide housing accommodation to their resident workers and families and to maintain hospitals and dispensaries.

Most of the Governments of the States and Union Territories are running a number of welfare centres. These centres cater to the recreational, educational, vocational and cultural needs of the workers and their children.

7. **Wages**—The Minimum Wages Act 1948 has the following important provisions—(1) It provides for fixing minimum wages in certain employments where 'sweated' labour is prevalent or where there is a great chance of exploitation of labour. Minimum wages are not to be fixed in respect of any industry in which there are less than 1,000 employees in the whole State. (2) The Act provides for the fixation of (a) a minimum time-rate, (b) a minimum piece-rate, (c) a guaranteed time-rate and (d) an overtime-rate appropriate to different occupations and different classes of workers. (3) The appropriate Governments are empowered to appoint committees to hold enquiries and advise in fixing the rates of minimum wages.

Coal Mines Bonus Schemes framed under *Coal Mines Provident Fund and Bonus Schemes Act,* 1948—are in operation in the coal mines of West Bengal, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Bombay, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan and Assam.

8. **Social Security**—The important Social Security Acts are *Workmen's Compensation Act,* 1923, *Employees' Provident Fund Act,* 1952, *Coal-Mines Provident and Bonus Schemes Act,* 1948, *Mines Maternity Benefits Act,* 1941 and *Employees' State Insurance Act,* 1948. The *Workmen's Compensation Act* provides for the payment of compensation for injuries received during employment, occupational diseases and deaths

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resulting from such injuries and diseases. Employees earning up to Rs. 400 are covered by the Act.

Employees' Provident Fund Act of 1952 applies to all units employing 50 or more workers, and all workers with monthly earnings of Rs. 500 or less are required to make a minimum contribution of 6¼ per cent of their income. The central feature of the scheme is that it is made compulsory on both employers and workers and that both parties are required to contribute.

Coal mines Provident Fund and Bonus Schemes Act of 1948 provides for the compulsory provident fund scheme for colliery workers. Under these schemes workers are required to contribute 6¼ per cent of their basic wages and dearness allowances, the employer contributing a similar amount.

The *Maternity Benefit Acts* have been passed in almost all the States. The Acts concerning the payment of maternity benefits are in operation in almost all the States. The three Central Acts : *Mines Maternity Benefits Act* 1941, the *Employees State Insurance Act* 1948 and *Plantation Labour Act* 1951 also regulate payment of maternity benefits.

The most important of Social Security Acts is the *Employees State Insurance Act of* 1948. The Act applies to all factories, other than seasonal factories, run with power and employing 20 or more persons. The risks covered under the scheme are employment injury including occupational diseases, maternity and sickness. Provision is made for benefits in cash as well as in kind (medical benefit). The Act is based on the principle of contributions by the employees and employers. The primary responsibility of paying fees as well as the employee's share of the contribution rests on the principal employer. An autonomous body called Employees State Insurance Corporation is to be set up for administering the insurance scheme. The scheme is to be financed by the Employees State Insurance Fund consisting of contributions of employers and employees and grants and gifts from Central and State governments. In October 1948 the Employees State Insurance Corporation was established.

9. **Industrial Relations and Industrial Disputes**—Since industrial peace is vital for economic progress, there are specific laws to deal with employer-worker disputes. These are governed by the *Industrial Disputes Act of* 1947 and amended in subsequent years. The Act provides for different kinds of machinery to deal with different situations. There are, for instance, *Works Committees* composed of representatives of employers and workers to remove day-to-day differences by mutual discussions. Then there are *Conciliation Boards* to bring about a settlement between the parties, if a dispute has arisen.

The Act specifies *Adjudication Machinery*. It has established three types Tribunals : *Labour Courts, Industrial Tribunals* and *National Tribunals*—all with original jurisdiction. There are two Industrial Tribunals—one at Dhanbad and the other at Nagpur. In addition, there is a

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Central Industrial Tribunal at Delhi. The States have their own Tribunals and Labour Courts.

10. **Miscellaneous**—(1) *The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act II of* 1933 lays down that any agreement to pledge the labour of a child below fifteen years by the parent in return of any payment or benefit will be null and void and the parent is liable to be fined upto Rs. 50 and the employer upto Rs. 200. (2) *The Employment of Children Act XXVI of* 1938 prohibits the employment of children below the age of 15 in certain occupations. No child who has not completed his 12th year can be employed in the following occupations : bidi making, carpet making, cement manufacture, cloth printing, dyeing and weaving, manufacture of matches, explosives and fire-works, mica cutting and splitting, shellac manufacture, soap manufacture, tanning and wool cleaning. (3) The *Industrial Statistics Act of* 1942 was passed for the collection of all varieties of labour statistics in India. The Act empowers the Statistics Authority to call for required returns and examine the relevant records, etc., and penalties have been provided for non-submission. (4) *Legislations relating to indebtedness* are the following—(*a*) C. P. Code of 1908 amended in 1937 provides for the exemption of attachments of salaries of all workers getting less than Rs. 100 per month and in the case of Government employees, the first Rs. 100 and the moity of the remainders (*b*) C. P. Code of 1908 was again amended in 1936 to prevent imprisonment of debtors. (*c*) Punjab Government has an Act known as *Punjab Relief of Indebtedness Act of* 1936. (*d*) C. P. Government passed an Act known as the *Adjustment and Liquidation of Industrial Workers' Debt Act of* 1936. (*e*) Bengal Government passed an Act known as *Bengal Workmen's Protection Act of* 1934. (*f*) M. P. Government passed an Act called *C. P. Protection of Debtor's Act,* which is more or less on the lines of Bengal Act. (*g*) Madras Government passed a similar legislation in 1941. (*h*) *Bihar Workmen's Protection Act* was passed in 1948 to protect certain classes of workmen from the molestation and intimidation by their creditors.

Industrial Housing—The Subsidised Industrial Housing Scheme, which came into operation in 1952, envisages the construction of houses for industrial workers governed by the Factories Act 1948 and Mine workers covered by the Mines Act 1952 except those employed in coal and mica mines. Plantation Labour Act 1951 makes it obligatory for every planter to provide housing accommodation for all his workers.

LABOUR ADMINISTRATION

The administration of labour laws is a divided responsibility. The Central Government, through its various offices, administers labour laws applying to mines, railways and other Central undertakings. The rest of the labour laws are administered by the State Governments through their own organisations.

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Under the Indian Constitution, the following subjects may be legislated concurrently by the Central and State legislatures—(1) Trade Unions, industrial and labour disputes, (2) Social Security and Social Insurance, employment and unemployment, (3) Welfare of labour including conditions of work, provident funds, employers' liability, workmen's compensation, invalidity and old age pensions, maternity benefits, (4) Vocational and Technical Training of labour, (5) Relief and rehabilitation of refugees.

The following subjects fall exclusively under the jurisdiction of the Union and the States.

Union List—(1) Regulation of labour and safety in mines and oilfields, (2) Industrial disputes concerning Union employees.

State List—Relief of disabled and unemployable.

Ministry of Labour and Employment—The activities of the Government of India regarding labour is controlled by the *Ministry of Labour and Employment*. The Ministry deals with the following subjects—(*i*) Labour Welfare, (*ii*) Industrial and Labour Disputes, (*iii*) Factory Labour, (*iv*) Unemployment Insurance and Health Insurance, etc., (*v*) Labour employed in Railways, Major ports, mines and oilfields, (*vi*) Resettlement of demobilised soldiers and discharged war-workers, (*vii*) Participation in the International Labour Conference and work connected therewith.

As regards subjects (i) to (iv), the Ministry is only responsible for laying down the general policy for the whole of India, while the implementation of the policy relating to these subjects is entirey the responsibility of the State Governments concerned, though the Central Government has power to exercise control and give directions.

The following are the Attached Offices of the Ministry.

(1) *Office of the Director-General, Employees' State Insurance Corporation, New Delhi* is a quasi-Government institution to administer the Employees' State Insurance Act. It has network of regional offices throughout the country.

(2) *Office of Director, Labour Bureau, Simla*—is responsible for the collection and compilation of labour statistics, maintenance of working class consumer index number, keeping up-to-date factual data relating to working conditions, conducting research into specific problems, etc.

(3) *Office of the Director-General of Resettlement and Employment*—The office was set up in 1945 to assist the demobilised personnel in their resettlement in civil life from the army. After some time, the scope and activities of this office were extended to various other categories.

(4) *Office of the Chief Labour Commissioner, New Delhi*—The organisation deals with (1) conciliation, (2) examination of welfare measures and advice to the employees and Government in connection therewith, (3) operation of labour laws to the extent of Central responsibility, (4) organisation and setting up of canteens in all Government undertakings,

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besides offering advice to State Governments and Administrations. There are six regional offices under the control of the Chief Labour Commissioner.

(5) *Office of the Coal Mines Welfare Commissioner, Dhanbad*—The Commissioner deals with (*i*) the administration of Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1947 and (*ii*) the administration of the Mica Mines Labour Fund Act, 1946.

(6) *Office of the Chief Inspector of Mines, Dhanbad*—The activities of this Department are (*i*) enforcement of the Indian Mines Act, (*ii*) inspection of mines, (*iii*) investigation of accidents, (*iv*) inspection of electrical installations and machinery, (*v*) technical advice to mine owners, (*vi*) prosecutions, (*vii*) collection of statistics and (*viii*) enforcement of the Mines Maternity Benefit Act, 1941.

(7) *Office of the Chief Adviser of Factories, New Delhi*—This office deals with (*a*) training of Factory Inspectors and Safety Officers, (*b*) industrial health, survey of toxic hazards, (*c*) environmental problems in factories, (*d*) studies relating to productivity and work methods, (*e*) housing of industrial labour and administration of safety measures, (*f*) Health and Welfare Schemes under the Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Act, (*g*) assistance in all matters relating to construction, design and lay-out of factories, (*h*) matters relating to the working conditions, (*i*) collection of up-to-date information in respect of safety, health and welfare of industrial workers.

(8) *Office of the Controller of Emigrant Labour, Shillong*—The office deals with (*a*) interpretation of the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932 and the Rules, (*b*) recruitment, repatriation of labour and inspection of tea gardens and depots, (*c*) compensation cases relating to persons belonging to provincial Civil Labour units and State Labour units who worked on Defence projects.

(9) *Offices of the Welfare Commissioners, Mica Mines Labour Welfare Fund,* Dhanbad and Nellore.

(10) *Office of the Coal Mines Provident Fund Commissioner, Dhanbad*—The organisation was set up in 1948 for (*a*) administration of Coal Mines Bonus Schemes, (*b*) administration of Coal Mines Provident Fund Scheme which has been formed under Coal Mines Provident Fund and Bonus Schemes Act, 1948.

(11) *Office of the Central Provident Fund Commissioner, New Delhi,* is responsible for the collection of amounts due to the Fund from employers and the payment of claims due to workers.

TRADE UNIONISM IN INDIA

The passing of the Indian Trade Union Act of 1926 (also amended in 1947), conferred a legal and corporate status on registered trade unions and granted them certain immunities in regard to trade disputes. The Act makes provisions for three matters :—(1) conditions governing the

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registration of trade unions, (2) the obligations to which a trade union is subject after registration and (3) the rights and privileges accorded to registered unions. The act also allowed the funds of the registered unions to be spent for the conduct of trade disputes and for the provision of benefits to its members.

The amended Act of 1947 contains a provision for compulsory recognition of representative unions by employers. The redeeming feature of the Act is that Labour Courts are to be appointed to hear and decide disputes arising from the refusal of employers to recognise any particular union. The 1947 Act specifies certain acts as unfair practices on the part of recognised unions and certain other acts as unfair on the part of employees. It also declared as unfair practices for an executive of an union to instigate a strike and unfair for a majority of members to take part in an irregular strike.

There are at present four central all-India Trade Union organisations in India : *The Indian National Trade Union Congress, the All-India Trade Union Congress, the Hind Mazdoor Sabha and the United Trade Union Congress.* Though the general objective of these four organisations is the same, namely, to promote the economic, political, social and cultural interests of workers, they differ in regard to certain fundamental principles based on political attitudes. I. N. T. U. C. which was founded in May 1947, was recognised by the Government as the most representative organisation of workers. The I. N. T. U. C. maintains close union with the Congress. In 1948 socialists separated from the All-India Trade Union Congress and formed *Hind Mazdoor Sabha.* The United Trade Union Congress started in 1949 tries to keep aloof from the party politics. It is almost free from leftist leadership and also does not try to support Government in all its aspects.

Though the four national organisations dominate the Indian Trade Union movement, not all Trade Unions in India belong to them or follow their leadership. A very large number of small unions stand aloof from their leadership. The striking examples of these are *Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association* and *National Federation of Indian Railwaymen.*

Membership of All India Organisations

	No. of Unions affiliated		*Membership*	
	1958	1957	1956	1957
I. N. T. U. C. ..	9,10,221	672	9,71,740	9,34,358
Hind Mazdoor Sabha ..	1,92,942	138	2,03,798	2,33,999
A. I. T .U. C. ..	5,37,567	..	4,22,851	..
United Trade Union Congress	82,011	..	1,59,109	..
	17,22,731	810	17,57,498	11,68,348

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NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SERVICE—Employment Exchanges originated in India during World War II period to resettle demobilised personnel. It was entrusted with the task of finding employment for displaced persons. The Exchange now renders employment assistance to all grades and categories of employment seekers. The exchanges are run by the Directorate-General of Resettlement and Employment of the Ministry of Labour. The activities of the Directorate are divided into two parts—Employment and Training Schemes.

The Employment Exchanges have now been transferred to the State Governments from 1956. The Central Government has now limited their responsibilities to policy-making, co-ordination of procedure and standards and to rendering of assistance whenever needed. There are one hundred and fifty-one training centres under the Craftsman Training Scheme. The other schemes are National Apprenticeship Training Scheme, Scheme for the Training of industrial workers. The Central Training Institute at Koni-Bilaspur (M. P.) was reorganised and a second centre started on a temporary basis at Aundh (Bombay). A National Council for Training Vocational Trades has been set up to advise the Government of India on all questions of training policy to co-ordinate vocational training and to lay down uniform standards.

INDIA AND THE I. L. O.—India has been an active member of the I.L.O. from its very inception in 1919 and is a permanent member of its governing body since 1922 and also a prominent member of the organisation as one of the ten leading industrial countries of the world.

India has been receiving technical assistance from I. L. O. since 1951 in the following fields—(*a*) Social Security, (*b*) Training-within-industry, (*c*) Vocational Instructors, (*d*) Employment service, (*e*) Productivity.

TRAINING SCHEMES—The following are the Institutes run by Ministry of Labour for training—

(1) Training Institutes directly administered by the Ministry of Labour.

(2) Training centres attached to Training Industries run by the State Government.

(3) Training Institutes attached to private institutions.

(4) A training course for instructors is conducted at the two Central Training Institutes at Koni Bilaspur (M.P.) and Aundh (Poona).

(5) A scheme to train women as craft instructors has been in operation since 1955 at the Central Training Institute for Women at New Delhi.

(6) National Council was set up in 1957 to award national trade certificates for craftsmen and to prescribe standards and curricula for craftsman training throughout the country.

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EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE STATISTICS

	No. of Exchanges	No. of Registration	No. placed in Employment
1955	136	15,84,024 ..	1,69,735
1956	143	16,69,895 ..	1,89,855
1957	181	17,74,668 ..	1,92,831
1958	212	22,03,888 ..	2,33,320
1959	244	24,71,596 ..	2,71,131

(*Indian Labour Journal*)

EMPLOYMENT IN FACTORIES, 1959

Average daily number of workers employed

Andhra Pradesh ..	1,72,964	Orissa	26,076
Assam	77,884	Punjab	1,05,295
Bihar	1,81,521	Rajasthan	52,124
Bombay	10,17,070	Uttar Pradesh ..	2,68,195
Kerala	1,66,525	West Bengal	6,80,757
Madhya Pradesh ..	1,64,047	Andamans & Nicobars	2,427
Madras	3,27,081	Delhi	59,280
Mysore	1,87,150	Himachal Pradesh ..	1,358
		Tripura	2,170

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES IN INDIA

(*Resulting in work-stoppages involving 10 workers or more*).

	No. of Disputes	Workers involved (In thousands)	Loss of mandays		No. of Disputes	Workers involved (In thousands)	Loss of mandays
1950 ..	814	719	12,806,704	1956 ..	1,203	715	6,992,040
1951 ..	1,071	691	3,818,928	1957 ..	1,630	889	6,429,000
1952 ..	963	809	3,382,608	1958 ..	1,524	929	7,799,000
1953 ..	772	466	3,382,608	1959 ..	1,236	533	4,685,000
1954 ..	840	477	3,372,630				
1955 ..	1,166	527	5,697,848				

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AGRICULTURE IN INDIA

IMPORTANCE OF AGRICULTURE IN INDIA—India is one agricultural countries in the world and one of the biggest sources of its of the leading wealth is its produce from land. It is the basic industry and provides employment to about 100 million people. It also contributes fifty per cent. of our national income. In addition, the agricultural products earn valuable foreign exchange for the country. Some of our biggest industires, like sugar and textiles, depend on agriculture for raw materials.

The world position of Indian agriculture is indeed a big one. India enjoys a virtual monopoly in lac and leads the world in the production of groundnuts and tea. It is the second largest producer of rice, jute, tobacco, raw sugar, rape-seed, sesamum and castor-seed.

Cereals are the most important items of agricultural production, being grown on about 60 per cent. of the cropped area. Rice accounts for about half of India's cereal output; the other half is accounted for by a variety of grains including wheat, millet and barley. In addition to cereal production, 18 per cent. of India's total cropped area is devoted to pulses, gram and other food crops. Nevertheless, India does not produce sufficient food for its own needs. One of the major objectives of the Five-Year Plans is to make India self-sufficient in foodstuffs by bringing more land under production through irrigation and reclamation and by increasing productivity. Various commercial crops are also significant. Oilseeds, cotton, sugarcane, tea, coffee, spices, rubber and jute are the most important. Such crops form the basis of some of major industries and are among the leading exports, either in raw or manufactured form.

SOIL OF INDIA—Four main types of soil are (1) *alluvial*, (2) *black*, (3) *red* and (4) *laterite*. The first three are rich in potash and lime, but deficient in phosphoric acid, nitrogen and humus. The laterite soil possesses plenty of humus, but lacks most of the other chemical ingredients. The laterite soil is found in Central India, Assam and along the Eastern and Western Ghats. The alluvial soil is the most fertile and easily worked and covers almost the entire Indo-Gangetic plain and the narrow coastal strips girdling peninsular India. Highly retentive of moisture and sticky, the black soil covers the western portion of the Deccan plateau, while the red soil covers the eastern part.

In addition to four main groups of soil mentioned above, the *desert soils* of the sub-continent occupy a large tract in Rajasthan and the south Punjab.

Saline and Alkali soils also form an important group of Indian soil, and are characterised by a high degree of impermeability and stickiness together with high alkalinity and frequent presence of large excess of free salts. They are usually poor in nitrogen and humus and unsuitable for crop-growing without previous reclamation. *Forest soils* occupy a large

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part of the sub-continent. These soils belong to brown earth and podsol groups. *Marshy and peaty soils* are found in coastal areas of Orissa and West Bengal, North-West Bihar, Almora district of U.P., South-East coast of Madras and in Kerala.

CROPS AND SEASONS—The two outstanding features of agricultural production in India are the wide variety of crops and the preponderance of food over non-food crops. Food crops occupy about 75 per cent of the total cropped area. There are two well-defined crop seasons: (i) *kharif* and (ii) *rabi*. The *kharif* crop is harvested in Nov. to Oct. 31 and *rabi* crop in May 1 to April 30. The major *kharif* crops include rice, jowar, bajra, maize, cotton, sugarcane, sesamum and groundnut; the major *rabi* crops are wheat, barley, tea, gram, linseed, rape, mustard; and in S. India, rice, jowar and cotton.

The seasons for individual crops are as follows—*Wheat*—Nov. to Oct.; *Sugarcane*—Nov. to Oct.; *Cotton*—Sept. to August; *Jute*—July to June; *Tea*—Jan. to Dec.; *Coffee*—July to June.

Classification of Crops of India—The crops of India are usually classified as follows:—(1) *Food crops* such as rice, wheat, barley, millets, pulses and gram, sugarcane and spices. Food crops occupy more than four-fifths of the cultivated land. (2) *Oilseeds* such as linseed, rape and mustard, sesamum, castor, groundnut and cocoanut. (3) *Fibres* such as cotton, jute, hemp and flax. (4) *Drugs and Beverages* such as poppy, cinchona, tobacco, tea and coffee.

THE GOVERNMENT ORGANISATION ON FOOD AND AGRICULTURE—Ministry of Food and Agriculture was set up in April, 1957. At present, the *Department of Food* is responsible for the following functions—(*a*) procurement of food grains for civil and military requirements, (*b*) distribution of imported food grains among States, (*c*) co-ordination, planning and guidance in regard to food policy from an all-India point of view, (*d*) regulating import and export of food grains. *The Department of Agriculture* is responsible for the following broad functions—(*a*) agricultural production, (*b*) agricultural research, education and extension, (*c*) animal husbandry, fisheries and forestry, (*d*) fruit and vegetable products industry, (*e*) agricultural economies and statistics, (*f*) agricultural development, (*g*) liaison with Food and Agriculture Organisation of U. N. and other International Organisations, (*h*) procurement and distribution of fertilizers, (*i*) agricultural marketing, (*j*) co-operation, (*k*) land reclamation, (*l*) agricultural minor irrigation, (*m*) soil conservation.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION—Research in the sphere of agriculture, animal husbandry and allied fields are carried out by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture through the agency of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), Central Research Institutes and Commodity Committees.

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The *Indian Council of Agricultural Research* which was set up in 1929, continues to promote, guide and co-ordinate agricultural research in the country. The Council does not possess any research institution of its own, but sponsors agricultural research in co-operation with the State Governments in Central and State research institutions, universities and recognised private institutions. ICAR is responsible for the dissemination of the results of the researches carried out in the fields of agriculture and animal husbandry. The finances of the ICAR are obtained from Government grants, contributions from other sources and the income from a cess of half per cent on the exports of certain agricultural products specified in the Agricultural Produces Cess Act, 1940.

Institutes—The Central Research Institutes are engaged in a variety of research projects, both fundamental and applied. They conduct extensive enquiries for the improvement of agriculture of the country in various ways.

India's largest agricultural research institute is the *Indian Agricultural Research Institute,* established by the Government of India on April 1, 1905 at Pusa, now at New Delhi. The Institute has been accorded the status of a University under the University Grants Commission Act. *Central Rice Research Institute, Cuttack,* carries on research in the field of breeding, agronomy, mycology, entomology and chemistry for the improvement of rice products. *Central Potato Research Institute, Simla* is engaged in evolving improved varieties of potatoes. *The Central Vegetable Breeding Station at Kulu* is experimenting on the adoption of European vegetables for Indian conditions. It is also investigating on self-fertilised seeds and the manipulation of agricultural practices to secure increased production. *Indian Institute of Sugar Technology* at Kanpur was established in 1936 and is now maintained by the Indian Central Sugarcane Committee. It conducts research in different branches of sugar technology. *The Indian Institute of Sugarcane Research* which was brought into being by the Indian Central Sugarcane Committee in 1922 at Lucknow, was taken over by the Central Government on 1st Jan., 1954. The scientific sections of the Institute are Agronomy, Entomology, Mycology, Agricultural Engineering, Soil Science, Sugarcane Physiology and Gur and Khandsari Research. *The Sugarcane Breeding Institute, Coimbatore and its sub-station at Karnal* carry on valuable investigations. *Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun* was opened in 1914 and is engaged in research on silviculture, forest botany, entomology, the seasoning, preservation and the technology of wood, timber mechanics, cellulose and paper pulp chemistry and on minor forest products. There is also another *Forest College at Coimbatore* for forest training. The Institute also provides training for forest officers. *Indian Veterinary Research Institutes at Izatnagar and Muktaswar* were established in 1890. The Institutes carry on its activities pertaining to research, teaching, manufacture of veterinary biological pro-

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ducts and advisory work. A post-graduate College of Animal Husbandry was started at the Institute in 1958. *National Dairy Research Institute at Bangalore* trains students for diploma course in dairying and conducts research on dairy problems. It is also engaged in the development of pedigree herds of Red Sindhi and Gir cows. *A National Dairy Research Institute* at Karnal has been started to carry on research work connected with quality of milk and analyses of milk samples for quality control purposes. The Dairy Science College attached to the Institute, started functioning on the 15th July, 1957. Among the other important research stations is the *Indian Lac Research Institute at Namkum, Ranchi,* which is engaged in fundamental and applied research in the entomology and chemistry. Regarding fishery research, the three important stations are *Central Inland Fisheries Research Station, Calcutta, Central Marine Research Station, Mandapam* and *Deep-Sea Fishing Station, Bombay* where inland, marine and deep-sea research are being carried on. *Central Fisheries Technological Research Station, Cochin* initiates research on fishing gear and craft and fishing method. With the continued Central financial assistance to the States, the training facilities in agricultural and veterinary colleges both at undergraduate and postgraduate levels have been almost doubled. The U. P. Government with the financial assistance of the Central Government have started in 1960 the Agricultural University at Rudrapur.

The following Commodity Committees operate and subsidise a number of research schemes at various research stations and sub-stations. These Committees are financed by the proceeds of a cess levied on the particular commodity stations and sub-stations.

(1) *Indian Central Cotton Committee* has a Technological Research Laboratory at Matunga, Bombay.

(2) *Indian Central Jute Committee's* research and extension work is undertaken by *Jute Agricultural Research Institute, Barrackpore, Technological Research Laboratories, Tollyganj, Calcutta, Economic Research Section* and the *Publicity Section.* The Committee also sponsors schemes of fundamental research at the *University of Calcutta, Bose Research Institute* and *Presidency College, Calcutta.*

(3) *Indian Central Oilseeds Committee* continues to finance schemes for agricultural research, multiplication and distribution of improved varieties of oilseeds, technological research, development of marketing and village oil industries.

(4) *Indian Central Sugarcane Committee* maintains Indian Institute of Sugar Technology at Kanpur, established in 1936. It conducts research in sugar technology, renders technical assistance to factories and trains students. There are other two Institutes—*Indian Institute of Sugarcane Research, Lucknow* and *Sugarcane Breeding Institute, Coimbatore.*

(5) *Indian Central Cocoanut Committee* has research stations at

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Kasaragod and Kayangulam which carry research work on control of pests and diseases, botany and breeding of coconuts and cultural and manurial aspects of coconut cultivation.

(6) *Indian Central Arecanut Committee* subsidises a number of research schemes. It has a Central Arecanut Research Station at Vittal and several Regional Research Stations.

(7) *Indian Central Tobacco Committee* carries research on various types of tobacco at its Institute at Rajahmundry as well as at its Research Stations and sub-stations.

(8) *Indian Lac Cess Committee, Namkum* (*Ranchi*) carries on research on both entomology and chemistry of lac. It has research stations.

(9) *All India Cattle Show Committee, Karnal, Punjab.*

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION—The Government of India give financial assistance to the State Governments for setting up new agricultural and veterinary colleges throughout the country at undergraduate and post-graduate levels. The Government of India gave a large financial help to the Uttar Pradesh Government for establishing *Agricultural University at Rudrapur* in 1960. The University will have a College of Agriculture, a College of Veterinary Medicine and a College of Agricultural Engineering and Technology as its constituent colleges.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE—India has been an active member of the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) of the United Nations since its very inception in October 1945. India is practically represented on all the important organs of the FAO. Co-operation with other international organisations is also maintained. India continues to be the member of the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureau, International Rice Commission, Indo-Pacific Fisheries Council, International Dairy Federation, International Union for the conservation of Nature, World Poultry Science Association and the International Hides and Allied Trades Improvement Society.

During 1959 F.A.O. assigned 28 foreign experts to India in the fields of animal husbandry and veterinary sciences, dairy, fisheries and forestry. The Government of India continues to receive assistance from the Government of U.S.A. under its Technical Assistance Programme. Under the Technical Co-operation Scheme of the Colombo Plan, trainees are sent from India for practical and higher training in agriculture and allied subjects. India also provides technical assistance to some countries under various programmes.

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME—The Development programmes for food cover two types of schemes—(1) Work Schemes, (2) Supply Schemes. The former include the construction and repair of wells, tanks, small dams, channels and tube-wells, the installation of water-lifting appliances, such as pumps etc., schemes of contour-bunding and clearance and reclamation of wasteland. The supply schemes cover

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the distribution of fertilizers, organic manures and improved seeds. The various important methods for the increase of food production adopted by the Government are as follows—

G. M. F. Campaign has given impetus to better irrigation facilities, increased use of fertilizers, improved varieties of seeds, improved cultural practices and various methods of intensive cultivation. *Central Fertilizer Pool* has been formed to make ammonium sulphate available to the cultivators throughout the country at reduced and uniform prices. The consumption of superphosphate, compost manure, bonemeal has been greatly increased. Multiplication and distribution of improved seeds is developing rapidly. The distribution of seeds is handled through Government depots and co-operative societies.

The important agricultural development programme is *minor irrigation works* which have the advantage of yielding quick results and can be executed with comparatively smaller outlay. *Spill-over tube-well* project is another scheme for the improvement of agriculture sponsored by the Government of India under the Indo-American Technical Assistance Programme. Large number of tube-wells have been sunk in different parts of the country. Under the *Ground Water Exploration Project,* exploratory bores are being drilled in different parts of the country, and most of them have been proved successful. The pace for establishment of *seed multiplication farms and distribution of improved seeds* have been greatly accelarated. The utilisation of compost manure has been one of the important schemes in the intensive cultivation programme. *Schemes for the Development of Commercial Crops* have been undertaken in several States, such as schemes for sugarcane development, cotton extension, jute development schemes in West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Orissa, U.P. and Tippera, oil-seeds development schemes in Maharashtra, Madras, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh and U.P. The work of effectively commnuicating the results of research to numerous field workers and farmers and that of training the extension personnel are continued by the *Directorate of Extension* through its three units (*a*) Extension Training Unit, (*b*) Farm Advisory Unit and (*c*) Farm Information Unit.

After Grow More Food Campaign, came the *Integrated Production Programme.* It was formulated in 1950-51 for the achievement of relative self-sufficiency in food, cotton, jute and sugar. The five main programmes are : (*a*) concentration of the available funds and technical facilities in 48 million acres with an assured water supply, (*b*) reclamation and cultivation of 10 million acres of waste and fallow lands, (*c*) organisation of *Bhumi Sena,* (*d*) *gosambardhan* drive for producing 80,000 stud bulls a year and for the eradication of rinder-pest in the country and (*e*) regular observance of *Vana Mahotsava* with the object of planting 300 million trees.

Land Reclamation—The land reclamation work for bringing more land under cultivation is carried on by two agencies, namely, *Central*

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Tractor Organisation and *Tractor Organisation of certain States.* Central Tractor Organisation was founded in 1947 with about 200 tractors, abandoned by U.S. Army. Since its inception, it carried out some of the largest reclamation operations in Asia. A Tractor Training Centre has been set up at Bundi (Madhya Pradesh). It has, however, been decided to close Central Tractor Organisations, as State Governments were unable to pay the full operational charges and also for the want of foreign exchange.

Plant Protection and Locust Control—Directorate of Plant Protection, Quarantine and Storage gives technical advice, equipment and personnel in controlling crop pests and diseases through its 14 Central Plant Protection Stations. Quarantine Stations at the sea and airports continue to carry quarantine inspection and treatment of plants and plant materials imported from foreign countries by sea and air.

Crop Competition—Another method for the increase of crop production is the crop competition initiated by the Central Government. Under this competition, the Central Government awards all-India cash prizes of Rs. 5,000 and a certificate of *Krishi Pandit* to the farmers producing highest yield in respect of wheat, gram, potato, paddy, jowar and bajra crops.

BHOODAN MOVEMENT—On a rough estimate, there are about 4.5 million landless labourers in the country. In spite of the abolition of zamindaries, there was no hope for these landless labourers. So Acharya Vinoba Bhave has started *Land Gift Movement.* This is an appeal to the landowners of India to donate land for the landless. The noble efforts of Vinoba Bhave have met with remarkable success. The movement has also received direct support of the State Governments and some political parties. Millions of acres of land have been donated. For the proper utilization of this donated land, the scope of the movement has been enlarged—such as *Koopdan* (gifts for sinking of wells) and *Sampattidan* (gifts for procuring agricultural implements and drought animals) and ultimately *Gramdan.*

AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS AND STATISTICS—Directorate of Economics and Statistics is the sole organisation under the Central Government which deals with all agro-economic problems in the sphere of food and agriculture. It also co-ordinates the work relating to the formulation of Five-Year and Annual Plans in agricultural sector and assessment of achievement. In this respect it acts as the liaison between the various Divisions in the Ministry of Food and Agriculture and Planning Commission on the one hand and the State Governments on the other. The Directorate prepares briefs for FAO Conference, ECAFE, ILO, GATT, UN bodies, Council and Committee on Commodity Problems, etc., etc. The Directorate takes steps for improvement of land records and agricultural statistics. The Directorate works on the *Integrated Scheme* for improvement of market intelligence. A Price Intelligence Organisation has been set up in the Directorate to study on a regular basis the flow

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of market supplies, market sentiment, factors leading to rise or fall in prices, crop outlook, market behaviour, etc. The Directorate co-ordinates the work of six Agro-Economic Research Centres including the one for Central India. Besides carrying on continuous village surveys, the Centres undertake *ad-hoc* investigations on co-operative farming, economies of irrigation rates, etc. The work relating to Farm Management Studies is also co-ordinated by the Directorate.

The name of the Statistical Wing of the ICAR has been changed into *Institute of Agricultural Research Statistics* for carrying on the work of a full-fledged research and training centre. The Institute carries on fundamental and applied research in statistical techniques, imparts post-graduate training in agricultural and animal husbandry statistics to the States nominees and private candidates and render advice to the State Governments and the Central Government. The Institute also projects in agriculture and animal husbandry research.

AGRICULTURAL MARKETING AND LAND REFORMS—The object of agricultural marketing is to reorganise the existing system so that farmer may secure his due share of the price paid by the consumer. The objective is sought to be secured through regulation of markets, standardisation and grading of commodities and development of marketing and processing on a co-operative basis. *Agricultural Produce (Grading and Marketing) Act* was passed in 1937 for grading the agricultural produce. The Directorate of Marketing continues its activities relating to grading and standardization of agricultural commodities, promotion of regulated markets, training of marketing personnel, surveys on marketing of agricultural commodities and administration of Fruit Products Order, 1955. *Agamark* has been chosen as national insignia and all graded commodities are marketed under this stamp which stand for purity and quality. Work on quality grading of various agricultural commodities which are internal consumption, such as ghee, edible oils, butter, cotton, eggs, atta, rice fruits gur and potatoes, is being carried on. The commodities compulsorily to be graded under *Agamark* prior to export are sann-hemp, fibre, tobacco leaf, wools, bristles, lemon grass oil and sandalwood oil.

Legislation to regulate markets is now in force in Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Kerala, Madras, Mysore, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Orissa and Delhi. Quality control work in respect of fruit and vegetable products, such as jams, jellies, quashes and some other soft drinks is enforced under the Fruit Products Order, 1955.

Land Reforms—The responsibility under the Constitution for undertaking land reform legislation and implementing the same rests with the State Governments. The Central Committee for Land Reforms considers important proposals on the subject received from the State governments and advises them from time to time on further measures necessary for achieving the objectives of land policy. The progress of principal develop-

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ments in the field of land reforms are as follows—(1) *Abolition of Intermediaries.* The implementation of intermediary abolition laws has either been completed or is nearing completion. (2) *Tenancy Reforms*—comprehensive tenancy legislation providing uniform tenancy lands has been passed in almost all the States of India. (3) *Security to Tenure*—security of tenure has been provided to tenants to a larger extent in most of the States. (4) Measures have been adopted in various States for *transfer of ownership rights* to tenants in various patterns. (5) *Regulation of Rent*—Legislature provisions have generally been adopted in nearly all the States for regulation of rents. (6) *Ceilings on Land Holdings* have been adopted in most of the States. It has two aspects—(*i*) ceiling on future acquisition and (*ii*) ceiling on existing holdings. (7) *Consolidation of holdings*—Legislation for consolidation of holdings and prevention of fragmentation of land has been enacted in almost all the States.

Horticulture Development—Schemes for the development of fruit production are being carried on in the States of Mysore, Bombay, Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Punjab, U. P., Andhra Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Tripura, Delhi and Pondicherry. Old orchards are being rejuvenated and new orchards are being started. Fruit shows are being held in the different parts of the country.

FOOD CROPS

Rice—is the leading crop of India and occupies about 30 per cent of the total cultivated area. In order of merit, Madras, Bihar, Bengal, U.P., M.P., Orissa, Assam and Bombay are the main rice-growing areas. Rice is a special crop in the monsoon tracts. In eastern and southern India it is the staple article of diet. There are about 40 distinct varieties of rice in India. The average rice yield in India is low, being only 723 lb. of cleansed rice per acre as compared to 2,350 lb. in Japan.

Wheat—which is the staple food in the central and northern India is a winter crop, and stands next only to rice in importance. U.P. and Punjab form the principal wheat-growing area, supplying about three-quarters of the total outturn in the country. The two main species of wheat grown in India are the so-called *'bread'* wheat of Europe and the so-called *'marconi'* wheat.

Barley—is a subsidiary food to wheat-eaters and is grown mainly in the U.P. and Bihar. India has now about 7 million acres under barley, producing about 2.4 million tons.

Millets—viz., *Jowar* (called cholam in Madras) and *bajra*. The two main varieties of millets grown in India constitute the staple food of the agricultural population of the south. While jowar is mainly grown in Bombay, Hyderabad, M.P., Madras, U.P., bajra is mainly grown in Rajasthan, Bombay, the U.P., Madras and the Punjab in order of importance. Another such foodcrop, grown mainly in the south, is *ragi*; another food

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crop, uncommonly rich in its food value, is *maize* (commonly known as makai or bhutta). Although grown more less all over India, it is grown mainly in the U.P. and Bihar.

Gram and the Pulses—These constitute an important and balancing item of the popular diet in this country. Pulses form the primary source of protein for the vegetarian population of the country. Some of them form a source of nutritious fodder, while others make excellent green manure crops. *Gram* is the most commonly grown pulse of India. Khesari, mung, masur, arhar, mattar and kalai are the other pulses, which also grow extensively throughout the country.

Spices—Though spices constitute only a minor crop in India's agricultural economy, their importance in the foreign trade of the country is considerable. The five important spices, pepper, cashew-nuts, cardamom, ginger and turmeric earn considerable foreign exchange.

Pepper—The West Coast, principally Kerala, is the source of pepper in India, though it is also grown in small quantities in Mysore, Madras and Bombay. By far the greater part of exports is to the United States.

Cardamom—is another spice. the largest exporter of which is India. The cardamom plantations are situated in the West Ghats, south of Nilgiris and Palghat gap with the main concentration in the Cardamom Hills of Travancore (Kerala). Besides being the largest exporter, India forms the only source of true cardamom in the world market. The main markets of export are Sweden, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia. A Cardamom Research Station is being set up in Kerala.

Cashewnuts—Next to pepper, the most important dollar earner among spices is cashewnuts. India is now the principal source of supply for cashew kernels in the world, accounting for more than 95 per cent of the world trade in this commodity. The Cashew grows mainly along the coasts, from Kanya Kumari to Bombay on the west coast and upto Berhampore along the east coast. Kerala is leading in area and production. Three research stations have been established at Ratnagiri in Bombay, Mangalore in Mysore State and Kottarakhara in Kerala with a view to promoting production of superior high-yielding types.

Ginger—Like pepper, cashewnuts and cardamoms, the next important ginger-growing area is Kerala, though it is also grown in other States like Uttar Pradesh. The bulk of the production in India is consumed as green ginger and the conversion of green ginger into dry form for export purposes is concentrated in the west coast region of Kerala.

Turmeric—The principal turmeric-growing areas in India are east coast, namely, Andhra and Orissa. To a smaller extent the crop is also grown in parts of Bombay, Madras and Kerala. The Turmeric Research Station started at Udayagiri in Orissa State under the auspices of I.C.A.R. has been carrying on investigations.

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Other Food Crops—Among *other food crops* mention must be made of the overall shortage of *fruits and vegetables* which for the most part are almost totally out of the reach of the general mass of people and due to which the latter is an insufficient unit of popular food considering the dietary habits of the people. The present annual supply of fruits and vegetables amounts to only 1.5 and 1.3 ounces per adult per day against the diet at 3 ounces and 10 ounces respectively. To make the position clear it may be mentioned that in potato for example, India's production is so very low that the per capita consumption comes to about only 8 lb. per annum as compared to 506 lb. in Belgium.

PLANTATION CROPS

The great plantation areas of India are Assam in the north, the Nilgiri Hills and the West Coast area of Kerala in the South. The crops that are grown in the plantation areas are detailed below—

Tobacco—India stands third in the production of tobacco, the other countries being U.S.A. and China. It brings to the Indian grower an annual return of about Rs. 40 crores. Andhra Pradesh by far the most important tobacco-producing State, contributing about 40 p.c. of the total production in India. About 95 p.c. of the country's verginia tobacco comes from this State. Bombay comes next, followed by Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Punjab. Tobacco grown in India is of two distinct botanical species : *Nicotiana tabacum* and *Nitotiana rustica. Nitotiana tabacum* is used in the manufacture of cigarettes, cigars, cheroots, bidi, chewing tobacco, snuff, hookah and pipe tobacco, while *Nicotiana rustica* is used mainly for hookah, chewing tobacco and snuff. Rustica represents only 8 p.c. of the total production of tobacco in the country. Cultivation of *Nicotiana rustica* is mainly confined to Upper India, while *Nicotiana tobacum* is grown all over the country. Tobacco cultivation in India is concentrated in the following zones—(1) *Guntur area* consists of the districts of Guntur, Krishna, East and West Godavari and Telangana in Andhra Pradesh. This area grows virginia tobacco (white burley and sun-cured virginia). (2) *Charotar* (*Gujarat*) *area* comprises the Anand, Borsad, Petlad and Nadiad talukas of Kaira district of Bombay State. This area grows mainly varieties of bidi tobacco famous all over India. (3) *The Nipani area* covering Belgaum in Mysore and Satara district with Kolhapur, Sangli and Miraj in Bombay State is also an important bidi tobacco-producing zone in the country. (4) *North Bihar* and *Bengal area* comprising the districts of Muzaffarpur, Darbhanga and Purnea in Bihar and Jalpaiguri, Malda ; Barhampur and Dinajpur in West Bengal grows tobacco varieties used mostly for hookah smoking and also for chewing and for preparing snuff. They are known locally vilayati, matihari and jati. (5) *The Uttar Pradesh* and *Punjab area* containing the

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district of Furrukhabad in the U.P. and the districts of Jullundur and Ferozepur in the Punjab, produces types of tobacco used mainly for hookah smoking and chewing. (6) *South Madras area covers* Madurai and Coimbatore districts of Madras State. In this area, chewing snuff, filler and binder tobaccos are mostly grown.

Poppy—is at present grown chiefly in U.P. and Central India and that mainly as a Government monopoly.

Cinchona—is mainly grown on Government plantations in the Nilgiri Hills and Darjeeling.

Tea—Indian Union is overwhelmingly the largest producer in the world. The yearly production is nearly 600 million lb. About 82 per cent of India's tea comes from North India, mainly from Assam and the Dooars (West Bengal) ; this tea is exported through the port of Calcutta. Tea is, after jute and cotton, India's most important exchange earner.

Coffee—coffee is one of the important plantation crops of India. The Indian production though small, has consisted always of a large proportion of highest quality and is grown in about 224,000 acres yielding about 18,000 tons. India produces less than one per cent of the world coffee output. There are about 10,851 coffee plantations in India. With the exception of small areas in Orissa, Assam and Madhya Pradesh, Indian coffee is grown in the low hills of South India. Mysore is the most important growing area followed by Madras, Coorg and Travancore-Cochin.

Rubber—The cultivation of raw rubber on a plantation scale was undertaken in Kerala, Malabar, Coorg and Mysore in early years of the present century.

FIBRES

Cotton—is the chief commercial crop of India. Bombay, Punjab, Madhya, Pradesh, Madras, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, Saurashtra, are the important cotton-prodccing tracts of the country.

Jute—It was a monopoly production of undivided India. After partition, the main producing area is West Bengal. It is also produced in moderate quantities in Bihar, Orissa and Assam. The heat and humidity and heavy downpour of rain—unpleasant features of the climate of Bengal, area ideal for the growth of jute. The outturn of dry fibre of jute generally varies from 8 to 25 mds. with an average of 11 mds. per acre, depending upon soil fertility and other factors.

Hemp—is another fibre grown in India chiefly in Madhpa Pradesh, Pradesh, U.P., Bombay and West Bengal. Small as the production is, it is used largely for the production of cordage and canvas.

Silk—Two-thirds of the total output of this fibre comes from Mysore. Of the other varieties of silk, "mulbery" silk is grown in the districts of Murshidabad, Malda and Birbhum of West Bengal, Dehra Dun and Parbatgarh of the U.P., Gurudaspur of Punjab and in Kashmir, where

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it is a state monopoly; *'tasar'* silk in the M.P., and the Chotanagpur division of Bihar; *'eri'* silk in the Jalpaiguri district of West Bengal and in Assam; and *'Muga'* silk in Assam and Manipur.

OTHER CASH CROPS

Sugarcane—In the sugar map of the world, India occupies a leading place producing about 4½ million tons, even exceeding that of Cuba. Uttar Pradesh and Bihar are the two main producers of sugarcane in India. The average yield of cane per acre is now around 14 tons as compared to 56 tone in Java and 62 tons in Hawaii.

Lac—is a resinous material secreted by an insect which lives as a parasite on certain tropical trees known as lac hosts. The principal lac hosts are *Polas, Ber* and *Kusum*. The important producing places of lac are Chota Nagpur Division of Bihar, Purulia district of West Bengal as also portions of Bombay, Orissa and Assam. This is an important 'cash crop' for the Adivasis.

Myrobalan—is a small fruit produced on trees in mixed deciduous forests normally below 3,000 feet above sea level, but occasionally found up to 5,000 feet. When pulped it produces a substance used in the tanning industry. It is also used as a country medicine. The fruit is collected in the forests in Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Bombay, Bihar and Orissa.

Lemongrass—Oil of lemongrass is an essential oil, a product ditilled from the leaves of a special specits of grass, botanically known as *cymbogon flexuosus*. Lemongrass is used for extracting aromatic chemicals employed in perfumery, soap, cosmatics and pharmaceutical preparations. The Kerala Government Lemongrass Research Station was established at Odakali, 14 miles from Ernakulam, on August 27, 1955. Lemongrass is a dollar-saving product. Nearly 75 per cent of the world's supply of lemongrass oil is produced in the State of Kerala where the area under cultivation is estimated at 40,000 acres.

OILSEEDS

Oilseeds—India is one of the largest producers of oilseeds and holds a prominent position in the world trade of oilseeds, being one of the principal exporting countries. Oilseed crops are those, from the seeds of which oil, tither edible or non-edible, is extracted. The crops may either be perennial as coconut, neem, mahua or annual, like groundnut, gingelly, etc. Groundnut, gingelly, mustard, copra, castor and kusum are the most important edible oilseeds. Indian Central Oilseeds Committee Act which was passed in 1946 was intended to promote the improvement and development in the cultivation and marketing of oilseeds and oilseeds products and in accordance with this Act the Indian Central Oilseeds Committee was constituted in May, 1947. This Committee is responsible for the deve-

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lopment of all oilseeds, excepting coconut for which a separate Committee has been constituted.

Linseed—a ragi crop, producing a very important industrial oil. Cultivation of linseed is widespread throughout India ; main centres being Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan.

Castor—another non-edible oilseed, is a virtual monopoly of India. It is grown almost throughout the length and breadth of India and Hyderabad is the most important producer. About 70 per cent of the crop is available for export either as seed or as oil. India comes next to Brazil only in world production and trade of castor seed.

Groundnut—India has the largest area under groundnuts in the world. The groundnut cultivation has become a major agricultural operation in India. Nearly 80 p.c. of the groundnut area is concentrated in Madras, Andhra Pradesh, and it has about 50 different varieties.

Groundnut is primarily used as a source of ediblt oil. On a large scale, the oil is refined and hydrogenated to get colourless and odourless products which find extensive use in culinary preparations. Unrefined groundnut oil is used in the manufacture of soap and glycerine. The cake left over after the extraction of oil is used either as cattle feed or as fertiliser.

Rape and Mustard—are two other very important edible oilseeds. Uttar Pradesh grows well over half the rape and mustard in India. Other important producing areas are Bihar, Punjab, Assam and Rajasthan.

Sesamum—or gingelly or til is also an edible oilseed. The chief growers of sesamum are U.P. and Madras followed by Rajasthan, Hyderabad and Madhya Pradesh.

Coconut—is an important oil-yielding tropical fruit. It provides many useful products to mankind. The kernel of the ripe nut in its raw state finds wide use in culinary preparations or is dried and converted into copra and crushed for oil. Coconut oil is greatly in demand for edible purposes as well as for the manufacture of soaps and toilet preparations. The tender nut affords a refreshing drink, while the unopened shell on tapping yields a sweet-juice or neera. Its leaf and timber are extensively used for constructing houses. In India it grows luxuriantly in the coastal and deltaic tracts and also in the interior of Mysore. The bulk of this produce comes from the plantations located in the strip of land lying on the west coast of India between the Arabian Sea and the Western Ghats, extending from the Konkan in the north to Cape Comorin in the south and falling within the territories of North Kanara of Bombay State, South Kanara and Malabar districts of Madras and Kerala. The districts of Tanjore, Godavari in Madras, Andhra and Mysore, Orissa and Bengal also possess appreciable areas under the crop.

Cotton-seed—also an edible oilseed, is naturally a by-product of cotton cultivation and is extensively grown in India.

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PRODUCTION OF FOOD GRAINS

(000s omitted)

	1950-51	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
Food Grains (*Production—tons*)		(*Production—tons*)		(*Production—tons*)	
Cereals	46,018	54,923	57,245	53,004	61,295
Pulses	8,030	10,871	11,503	9,507	12,208
Total Food Grains ..	54,048	65,794	68,748	62,511	73,503
Non-Food Grains					
Oil Seeds	5,076	5,643	6,176	6,051	6,919
Sugar	5,616	5,979	6,752	6,871	7,158
Cotton (lint) ..	2,910	3,998	4,735	4,739	4,705
Jute	3,283	4,198	4,288	4,052	5,178
Mesta	..	1,153	1,478	1,291	1,581
Silk (raw)	2,629	3,081	2,974	3,184	..
Tea (in lb.) ..	607,318	627,669	636,499	684,738	..
Coffee (in lb.) ..	64,322	75,784	78,860	88,769	..
Rubber (in lb.) ..	31,829	49,550	48,622	..	..
Tobacco	257	298	294	237	263
Lac (in maunds) ..	1,073	1,248	1,315	1,141	1,014

(*Report on Currency & Finance 1959-60*)

INDEX NUMBERS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

(Base : Agricultural year 1950=100)

	Weight	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
Total cereals ..	58.3	114.9	119.0	108.6	127.3
Total pulses ..	8.6	118.4	124.5	104.2	134.1
Total foodgrains ..	66.9	115.3	120.5	108.0	128.2
Total oilseeds ..	9.9	108.6	118.9	113.8	131.5
Total fibres ..	4.5	149.7	171.4	165.6	179.0
Total plantation crops ..	3.6	114.4	118.9	121.5	126.6
Total miscellaneous ..	15.1	120.1	127.5	127.2	129.7
Total Non-food grains ..	33.1	120.1	130.0	127.8	139.6
All Commoditities ..	100.0	116.9	123.6	114.6	131.0

(*Report on Currency & Finance, 1959-60.*)

FISHERY IN INDIA

FISH RESOURCES—India with a coast-line of 3,535 miles into which numerous large, perennial rivers discharge their silt-laden waters in innumerable gulfs, creeks, bays and oceanic islands, has a fishable area of about 110,000 square miles. The inland fishery resources of India include extensive river systems, vast net work of irrigation canals, reservoirs, tanks, ponds, jheels, swamps, brackish water lakes and extensive estuaries. Although the living acquatic resources in the seas surrounding India and her

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inland waters are varied and aboundant, there is evidence that present operations neither fully exploit nor make the best use of them. The main sources of fish-supply in India are inland fisheries, sea fisheries and estuarine and backwater fisheries.

The average annual production of fish is about 800,000 metric tons of sea fish and about 300,000 metric tons of inland fish. This total falls far below the required level of fish supply, which is set in terms of nutritional requirements, at something more than four million tons. There are over 73,000 fishing crafts engaging nearly a million fishermen.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF FISHERIES—*Inland Fisheries*—constitute fresh fish from rivers, canals, tanks, ponds, irrigation channels, inundated tracts, etc. They are the mainstay of inland fisheries of India. The extensive areas of Ganga system, Brahmaputra in Assam, Mahanadi in Orissa, Narmada, Tapti, Godavari, Kishna and Cavery in the Madhya Bharat and South India are the main areas for inland fisheries. In this class of fish, West Bengal leads the rest of India. The three States of West Bengal, Bihar and Assam account for 72 per cent. of the total fresh water fish in India.

Sea Fishing—Sea fishing is mainly carried on in small crafts in coastal waters from five to seven miles from the shore and within a depth of 10 fathoms. With the exception of a few off-shore fishing boats operating in certain localities, very few fishermen make voyages which would entail staying in the open sea longer than 12 hours at a time. This is largely because the equipment used for sea-fishing consists mostly boats, canoes, catamarans and small nets and tackles which are not of a type which can stand the rigours and requirements of off-shore or deep-sea fishing. Sea fishing is carried on by about 80,000 indigenous crafts of a great variety, employing a large range of methods. The sea fisheries are confined to the coastal waters from the shore of Gujarat, Canara, Malabar coast, Gulf of Mannar, Madras coast and Coromondal coast.

Estuarine and Backwater Fishing—Chilka lake in Orissa, backwaters in Madras, Cochin and Travancore, deltaic areas of Sundarbans and Mahanadi are the principal sources of estuarine and backwater fish. The estuaries of Mahanadi and Ganga stretching from Puri to Hooghly are extensive fishing grounds, containing hilsa, pomfrets, prowns, catla, catfish, rohu, etc.

FISHING INDUSTRY—(1) There is practically no fish-canning industry in India, but fish curing is being carried on in various ways. In India fish is preserved by desiccation with or without salt and by the use of antiseptic preservatives, such as brine, vinegar, etc. The main process is the desiccation by drying fish in the sun. It is also done by salt. Canning is practised on a limited scale in Madras and Bombay. The cured fish has developed lucrative export trade with Ceylon and other countries. Fish curing yards have been established along the coasts of

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India. In order to develop fish industry in India on an extensive scale, refrigeration system has become absolutely necessary. Cold storage facilities are being developed in every part.

Marketing—Excepting the major consumption centres, Bombay and Calcutta, no large markets exist exclusively for fish. The transport arrangements and handling capacity of the fish merchants are very limited.

VARIETIES OF FISHES—More than 1,800 distinct species of fish are known to exist in the seas around the country and the island waters, but the varieties that are caught in appreciable quantities are limited in number. Pisciculture experts classify the commercially important varieties of sea fish into 15 groups and freshwater fish into eight.

The sea-fish groups include elasmobranchs, eels, cat fishes, silver-bar fish, herrings and anchovies, Bombay ducks, mackerels and perches, silver-bellies, pomfrets, flat fishes, mullets, Indian salmon which is stated to be not a true salmon, jew fish, crustaceans and minor shell-fishes.

Fresh water fishes are grouped under cat-fishes, mullets, carps, prawns, murrels, feather backs, eels, herrings and anchovies. Though several kinds of edible fishes are obtained from fresh water sources, only a fraction of the inland water area is devoted to planned pisciculture.

Regarding fresh water fishes, carps form the most highly esteemed variety constituting about 34 per cent. such as *Rohu, Catla, Mirgal* and *Calbaus* which are well-known throughout India. Other important varieties are cat fish, wallago, bagarious, clarius, silundia and macrones belonging to this class. Trout has been introduced into the hill streams in Kashmir, Kumaon and Nilgiri Hills.

Regarding *river fishes* the following may be specially mentioned: *Masheer* is available in the upper reaches of most rivers in India. *Chilwa* is a flat-sided, thin-bodied fish with his stomach running an edge. It occurs freely both in the north as well as in south Indian rivers. *Murrel* varies from 2 to 3 ft. in length. *Batchwa* is small but excellent for eating. *Barils* have 14 species and they are widely distributed throughout India. *Olive carp* is available in Madras and is also found in the fresh waters along the coast of India from Kutch to Bengal. *Mulley* has no scales.

Regarding *tank fishing* we have *rohu* which is met within most large-sized tanks.

FISH PRODUCTS—Besides articles of food, fish yields several by-products, such as *fish-oil, fish-meal, fish-manure, fish-maws* and *shark-fins*. The most important is *fish oil,* such as, sardine oil and shark-liver oil which are now produced on commercial basis in India. The oil is used for the manufacture of paints, soft-soaps, for softening hides, for temparing steel, batching jute and after hydrogenation for the preparation of edible fats. *Fish liver oil* produces vitamins A and B indispensable for wasting diseases. It is being manufactured by the Governments of Bombay, Madras and Kerala. The Government shark-liver oil factory is situated at

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Kozhikode, Madras, which supplies shark-liver oil for use in hospitals and for sale to the public. Indian fishes, such as salmons, jew fishes, cat-fishes are yielding *'Isin-glass,'* a valuable article for the clarification of wines. Bombay, the east coast of Madras and the Sunderbans in Bengal are the centres of trade of this commodity. Fish-scraps are converted into *fish-meal* as additional protein food for poultry and livestock. Fish refuse is being dried as *fish-manure.*

Fish-curing is also an important supplementary trade. The chief methods of curing fish in India are sun-drying and salt curing, either by dry or wet process.

RATE OF CONSUMPTION—The average *per capita* annual consumption of fish in India is estimated at 3.98 lb. Travancore has the highest consumption of 21 lb. *per capita* a year, which comes to about one ounce *per capita* a day. Other States which consume considerable quantities of fish are West Bengal, 13 lb. *per capita* a year ; Madras 12 lb., Bombay 7 lb., Assam 6 lb. and Orissa 5 lb. Consumption is the lowest in the Punjab with 0.08 lb.

In the FAO surveys, India has been included in the category of low fish-consuming countries whose average *per capita* consumption falls below five kilograms. India's neighbour, Burma, is among the fish-consuming countries with an average of 20 kilograms *per capita.*

Nutrition experts estimate that for a balanced diet 1.3 ounces per day is required per adult, i.e., 20 lb. *per capita per* annum.

Aproximately 92 per cent. of the total production in India is used for edible purposes and eight per cent. for the manufacture of industrial and other products.

FISHERIES RESEARCH & DEVELOPMENT—In the sphere of fisheries development, emphasis continues on programmes for expansion of *marine fishing* by mechanisation of fishing crafts, exploratory and experimental fishing to locate new grounds, improvement of fishing methods, increasing the supply of fishery requisites, provisions of facilities for landing, preservation, transport, marketing of fish catches and training. The schemes relating to the development of inland fisheries aim at increasing fish production through surveys, introduction of fish culture in fallow areas, establishment of fishing farms, investigation of fish seed resources, development of reservoir fisheries and training of personnel.

Central Government continues to provide financial and technical assistance to State Governments for implementation of various fisheries development schemes. The F.A.O., T.C.M. and Indo-Norwegian Foundation also continue to render valuable technical assistance in the development programmes of both the Central and State Governments. The fish market organisations are being gradually strengthened to meet the increasisg needs of the fishing industry.

The Government of India has set up a *Central Board of Fisheries*

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under the Chairmanship of the Union Minister for Food and Agriculture for integration and co-ordination of fisheries research and development activities of the country. The Board discusses at national level problems connected with fisheries research and development and recommend suitable measures for better co-ordination of this work between the Centre, States and fisheries organisation.

There are four important fishery research organisations in the country—(1) *Central Inland Fisheries Research Station, Calcutta,* (2) *Central Marine Research Station, Mandapam (Madras),* (3) *Central Fisheries Technological Research Station, Cochin,* (4) *Deep Sea Fishing Station, Bombay.* These stations conduct investigations in fisheries problems. The station at Mandapam carries a research on off-shore fisheries, experimental fish farming, etc. The station at Cochin makes studies on fishing gear pertaining to gear materials and their preservation, gear design and fishing methods.

AQUARIA AND MUSEUMS—The main aquariam of India is *Taraporevala Aquarium,* Marine Drive, Bombay. Attached to this acquarium is the Marine Biological Research Station where facilities are available to research students for M.Sc. and Ph.D. degrees. A fish farm is being established at Sasson Dock, Bombay, for conducting research on problems relating to ancillary industries like shark liver oil, gelatine, glue, fish meal, etc. There are a museum and an aquarium in Madras, which preserve specimens of all important marine and fresh water fishes, many kinds of sharks, acquatic cureos, etc. There is a small experimental aquarium of the Orissa Fisheries Department at Cuttack. A small museum exists in the Central Fisheries Research Laboratories, Lucknow.

PEARL FISHERY—One of the important developments in the fish industry is the revival of pearl fishing by the Madras Government. Pear fishery in the Gulf of Mannar, off Tuticorin coast, is one of the oldest trades of peninsular India. There are two types of oysters—(1) window-pane oyster shell used for decorative purposes and (2) real pearl oyster. The window-pane oysters are found in open sea off Coromondal coast, Madras coast and Cochin Coast. Usually, the diving starts early March in the Gulf and lasts for six to eight weeks. When the oyster baskets are brought up to the surface, two-thirds is taken up and sealed as the Government's share and one-third is distributed among the divers. The profits from the haul of these few weeks come to about 20 to 30 lakhs of rupees.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

IMPORTANCE OF CATTLE IN INDIA—Indian economy is essentially based on agriculture, which supports 70 p.c., of the population and agriclutural operations are depend mainly on cattle to provide the

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motive force. Livestock farming and animal husbandry have, therefore, a significant role to play towards higher standard of living. We have in India about 160 million cattle, 45 million buffaloes, 56 million goats and 38 million sheep as well as horses, pigs and other domestic animals. India possesses more than one-fourth of the world's total cattle population. It is estimated that the annual direct contribution from our livestock by labour alone is over, 1,000 crores of rupees and by manure another 1,000 crores.

Animal husbandry is a State subject, but under the Directive Principles of the Indian Constitution, the Centre has been assigned the role of organising it on a planned and scientific basis throughout the country. Some of the regions of India have cattle tracts with well-developed milch and dual purpose breeds, but majority of our cattle are of a non-descript type—mainly the result of poor animal husbandry resources. The lower standards of animal husbandry are clearly demonstrated by the poorer per capita consumption of milk in different parts of the country. For instance, the per capita milk consumption in Madras is 2.7 ounces, Kerala 1.4 ounces, Mysore 3.7 ounces, Assam 1.9 ounces, Orissa 1.8 ounces and West Bengal 2.6 ounces against 14.75 ounces in the Punjab, 8.2 ounces in Uttar Pradesh and 8.1 ounces in Rajasthan.

The object of the Government policy in regard to the improvement of animal husbandry in this country is to develop the milking capacity of well-defined milk breeds by selective breeding and upgrading of the non-descript cattle and improvement of draught breeds in milk yield without impairing the quality of the bullocks.

The animal husbandry work is shared by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, the Indian Veterinary Research Institute, Izatnagar and Mukteswar, the National Dairy Research Institute, Karnal and the Cattle Breeding Station at Jabalpur.

DEVELOPMENT OF ANIMAL HUSBANDRY—The following are the steps adopted by the Government for the improvement of animal husbandry in India--

All-India Key Village Scheme—The all-India Key Village Scheme initiated during the First Plan aims at an all-round development of India's cattle. The ultimate objective is to increase their yield of milk and raising productive efficiency of cattle. Scientific methods of breeding, proper feeding, improved management, effective disease control and better marketing are the main features of the scheme. These measures are adopted in select areas, called the key village blocks. A key village block is a compact area consisting of contiguous villages. Superior pedigree bulls are assigned to such a block. While superior germ-plasma is introduced to improve the breed of cattle, all undesirable bulls in the area are removed. Artificial insemination is popularised by the establishment of artificial insemination centres. Finally, steps are taken to increase the production of cattle feeds and fodder. As an adjunct to the key village scheme, a

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calf-rearing scheme was introduced in 1954-55. A Central Artificial Insemination Station at Bangalore has been set up for the centralised collections and distribution of semen. A National Plan for the eradication of rinderpest has been put into operation.

Gaushalas—There is a wide scope in the country for utilizing the facilities available with private institutions, such as *Gaushalas, Pinjrapole* and individual breeders, for cattlt improvement. Under the new scheme financial and technical assistance is provided to *gausalas.*

Gosadhan Scheme—Gosadhan Scheme has been initiated for the removal and segregation of old uneconomic and unproductive cattle. Upto 1959, 57 *gosadhans* had been set up in the country. Under this scheme, the animals are rounded up and categorised. 'Productive cattles' are distributed to bonafide breeders or institutions for breeding purposes in nondescript areas of the country, as these among in many ways superior to the local cattle. 'Unproductive' cattle are sent to gosadhans.

Chamaralayas—Well-equipped *chamaralayas* have been added recently to gosadans to utilise the hides and other waste products of animals and to put the institutions on an economic basis. Two centres for imparting training in improved methods of hide flaying and carcass utilisation have been set up—one under the control of the Central Council of Gosamardhan, in Delhi and the other near Lucknow with the assistance of the Netherlands Government.

Gansamvardhana—A *Central Council of Gansamvardhana* has been formed to advise the Central and State Governments on problems of improvement and development of the cattle wealth of the country and to assist the State Federations of Gaushalas and Pinjrapoles in regard to the development of these institutions on proper lines. The Council also arranges for the celebration of Ganasamvardhana Week throughout the country and also All India Milk Yield Competition in respect of higher breeds of cattle.

Central Stud Farm—All-India Central Stud Farm was started in Bangalore in 1955 by the Government of India as a part of an intensive scheme for the improvement and development of cattle in the country. The farm consists of pedigree breeds from all parts of India as well as foreign breeds. The pedigree breeds of this All-India Central Farm consist of the Sindhi, Tharpar, Gir, Murrah, Ongole and Kangayam types and the Jersy from America. The semen of these pedigree breeds will be available to the pilot unit centres.

National Livestock Committee—This Committee formerly known as All-India Cattle Show Committee, was founded to spread the knowledge of principles of sound animal and poultry breeding among the breeders throughout the country by organising cattle and poultry shows. A large number of trophies and cash prizes are awarded to the winners at all these shows with a view to providing the necessary incentive to breeders. All-

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India Cattle Breeders Conference is also organised on the occasion of the All-India Show. State shows are now being organised. The Sales Intelligence Service of the Committee arranges for the purchase and export of buffaloes, bulls and cows to China, Afghanistan and Pakistan.

VETERINARY RESEARCH—The demand for trained veterinary personnel increased considerably on the setting up of Community Development Blocks and also as a result of development schemes under Five-Year Plans. So the Government of India initiated measures to render financial assistance to the State Governments for (1) opening new veterinary colleges, (2) for expansion of training facilities at some existing colleges, (3) for starting double shifts at veterinary colleges. Prior to 1955 there were only 10 Veterinary Colleges in the country. Six new colleges have been established in recent years.

DIVISION OF LIVESTOCK—Livestock is generally divided into three classes, namely—(a) *Bovine,* comprising oxen and buffaloes ; (b) *Ovine,* comprising sheep and goats ; and (c) *others,* comprising horses, ponies, mules, donkeys, camels, and pigs.

SPECIES OF CATTLE—There are 25 well-defined breeds of cattle and six well-defined breeds of buffaloes in different parts of India, particularly the dry ones. In the eastern and southern parts where rainfall is heavy, the cattle are non-descript and do not belong to any definite breed. A few of these breeds are of the dairy type of which the females are high yielders of milk, but males are poor specimens. A large majority of the breeds are of the draught type, the bullocks being of high quality and the cows poor milkers. In between there are " dual-purpose " breeds of which both the cows and bullocks are above the average. Some of the best varieties are mentioned here—

(1) Some of the best *cows* in India are *Sahiwal* in the Punjab and *Gir* in Saurashtra. *Red Sindhi* whose habitat is in Sind (Pakistan) has been developed in Coorg and at Government farms of Karnal, Hosur and Koila. It is a milch breed cow and is one of the best and economical producers of milk.

(2) The important breeds of *bullocks* are *Hissar* and *Hansi,* found in the Punjab and *Nellore* in Madras. *Amrit Mahal* is one of the best draught breeds found chiefly in Mysore State. Bullocks of this breed are active and fast trotters. *Ongole* bullocks are powerful and suitable for any work. Home of this breed is Nellore and Guntur districts of Madras. Other breeds are *Kanrej* in Gujarat, *Kangayam* in Madras, *Kherigarh* in Uttar Pradesh, *Dungi and Nimar* in Bombay and *Harina* in the Punjab. The finest duel purpose animals, *i.e.,* best for draught as well as milk purposes are *Kanrej* and *Gir.* The best breeds of *buffaloes* are *Murrah* in the Punjab *Jafferbadi* in Saurashtra and *Mehasana, Surati* and *Pandharpuri* in Bombay. These nine breeds of cattle from all parts of India are of first rate importance :—

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Sindhi—This breed hails from Sind, but several pedigree herds of it have been established in India, particularly in Kathiawar on the West Coast. It is a distinctive dairy animal.

Sahiwal—Though originally belonged to central undivided Punjab, it is available in Karnal, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh.

Harina—The home of this breed is the area covered by the districts of Rohtak, Hissar, Gurgaon, part of Karnal and the Delhi State.

Murrah—The cows of this breed are good milker and the bullocks are excellent for draught. It is available in Southern Punjab, Delhi and Northern Uttar Pradesh.

Gir—The home of this breed is Kathiawar. Pure specimen of this breed is available in Junagadh.

Kankrej—The home of this breed is the country to the south-east of the Rann of Kutch, extending from the south-west corner of the Tharparkar district in Sind to Dholka in Ahmedabad district, also along the Banas and Saraswati rivers. It is one of the heaviest of Indian cattle.

Tharparkar—Coming originally from the arid semi-desert tracts of south-east Sind, this breed is mostly bred in India today in the north-east portion of Bombay State as well as Marwar.

Kangayam—The name of this breed is derived from the Kangayam division of Coimbatore district, where it has been in existence for a long time.

Ongole—The home of this breed is Ongole tract of the Madras Presidency, comprising Ongole, Guntur, Narasaraopet, parts of Bapatia, etc.

It is a significant fact that good cattle are generally found in dry areas and inferior cattle in areas of heavy rainfall. The rainfall map of India more or less coincides with her cattle map.

Sheep—Next in importance to cattle among the country's livestock are sheep which contribute substantially to the national income by providing essential products in the form of wool, meat, skins and manure. Their distribution is widely divergent—mainly dependent upon the climatic conditions, the number being smaller in heavy rainfall areas and greater in light rainfall areas. The sheep are of mutton variety and of the woolly type. The wool which is one of the main products of the sheep-breeding industry, holds eighth position amongst the agricultural commodities in the country's export trade. The sheep do not only provide wool, but also mutton, manure, pelts, hair, milk, butter and serve as pack animals to carry essential foodgrains from their owners across the precipitious hills, where other systems of transport would perhaps fail.

There are about 14 breeds of sheep in India, which can be divided into two distinct types, namely, woolly and hairy. The woolly types produce wool fibres of fine or coarse quality, while others just produce hair and are reared for manurial purposes and for providing mutton.

The carpet wool produced in India is classified in the world markets

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as East Indian type of wool and is sold under well-known names of Joria and Vinanere. The Bikaneri breed hailing from the desert of Bikaner is the hardiest breed known in India. This breed is becoming a cosmopolitan breed of India and is being introduced in different States. This country also produces large quantities of fine wool, specially in the hills of the Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and Kashmir. There are several types of hill-sheep along the Himalayan ranges which produce fine wool, such as Gurez, Karnah, Bhadaswah, and Rampur Busher. The story of Indian hill-sheep will remain incomplete without the mention of Pashmina goat coming from Ladakh, Kashmir. This goat produces the finest wool in the world, known as *Pasham*. Marino sheep are being introduced in our hill areas to improve the local sheep.

The estimated population of 38 million sheep produce annually about 66 million pounds of wool. The major portion of this 'clip' is classed as carpet grade. The yield of wool varies from $\frac{3}{4}$th of a pound to 4 pounds per sheep. Annually more than 50 per cent. of the clip valued at Rs. 120 million is exported. The mill industry concerned with the manufacture of superior cloth has to depend on the import of raw or semi-processed wool to the extent of 15 million pounds, estimated to cost not less than Rs. 110 million in foreign exchange.

The sheep are found in the temperate Himalayan region, the dry northern region and southern region and the eastern region. The temperate Himalayan region includes Kashmir, U.P. and hill districts of U.P. and the Punjab. The dry northern region includes Rajasthan, South-east Punjab, Saurashtra, Kutch and parts of western U.P. Southern region includes Maharashtra, Mysore, Andhra, Madras and parts of Madhya Pradesh. The eastern region includes Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal and Assam.

Goat is also the principal source of meat supply in the country. The important varieties of goat are—Amnapuri type of the Deccan Plateau, the Surti of West India and the black and white bearded variety of Bengal, Ganjam, and Telingana varieties.

India's *goats* number about 58 millions. Goats are prized for their meat and milk. Goat contributes only 3 p.c. of the total milk supply of India.

India's *pigs* belong to two principal species, namely, Indian wild boar found throughout India and pigmy hog in the forests at the base of the Himalayas in Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan. Pigs are useful for bristles, lard, meat (pork, ham, bacon) and skins.

Horses are mainly used for transport. The Kathiawar breed of horses known as *kathi* is famous for its great power and endurance. The Marhatta pony, the little *Gujarat* and *Dimthadi* of the Deccan are also famous. The ponies of Manipur are regarded as the best in India. Bhutia pony is also famous for the power of endurance and weight-carrying capacity.

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CATTLE DISEASE—The reported mortality from the rinderpest in India every year is about two lakhs, but the actual number of deaths much higher. As a result of researches conducted at the Indian Veterinary Research Institute, Izatnagar and elsewhere, vaccines have been evolved to make them immune from the disease. Large sums were provided in the 1st Five Year Plan for the eradication of rinderpest. In 1954 the Central Rinderpest Control Committee was also set up and in October 1954 a pilot project was initiated in Bombay, Hyderabad, Andhra, Mysore, Madras and Kerala. Production centres of vaccines have been established at Ranipet (Madras), Calcutta (West Bengal), Lucknow (U.P.), Hissar (Punjab) and at Veterinary Research Institute at Izzatnagar.

The National Rinderpest Eradication Campaign started in the First Five Year Plan continues to function in different States.

POULTRY—Poultry include those domesticated birds which reproduce freely and are of economic importance to man. They embrace chickens, turkeys, ducks, geese, guinea fowl, pigeons, pea fowl, etc. The most important of them is chicken. India's total poultry population according to 1956 census is about 97 millions including ducks ; of these about 36 million birds are hens whose laying capacity is, on an average, about 53 eggs per bird per year. This is very low compared to the world average of about 120 eggs. The important poultry-producing areas are Madras (25.2%), West Bengal (12.6%), Bihar (11.2%), Assam (8.9%), Bombay (8.5%), Madhya Pradesh (6%). The per capita consumption per year of poultry meat in India is as low as 0.29 lb. as against 29.32 lb. in U.S.A., 20.94 lb. in Canada and 13.23 lb. in France.

Fowls—Domestic fowls of India may be divided into two broad groups —*desi* and improved or exotic. The term *desi* means all indigenous fowls and are generally not of pure breed because of the promiscuous multiplication. The imported (exotic) breeds which have been acclimatised in India are mostly white Leghorn and Rhode Island Red. Small number of other breeds are Black Minorca, Plymouth Rock, Australorp, New Hamphire, Light Sussex, Brown Leghorn, etc.

Poultry Development—In 1938 a poultry research division was established at the Indian Veterinary Research Institute, Izatnagar, which is a landmark in the development of poultry in India. This Institute evolved a suitable vaccine against Ranikhet disease and fowlpox. Efforts have been made at the Institute for the improvement of indigenous birds by selective breeding and crossing. All India Poultry Development Scheme under Second Five Year Plan aims at the establishment of five regional poultry farms and 300 poultry extension-*cum*-development centres.

In order to provide States with suitable breeding foundation stock, the Government of India with the assistance of TCM imported a plane-load of 30,000 day-old chicks from U.S.A. and after rearing and protecting them against infectious diseases at the Central Poultry Farm, Delhi, distributed

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them to the States. Five regional poultry farms and 300 poultry extension-*cum*-development centres are being established at an estimated cost of Rs. 258·8 lakhs.

Ducks—It has been estimated that India has approximately 16 million *ducks*, representing 18 per cent of the domesticated duck population of the world. Madras and Bengal account for more than 75 per cent of ducks in India. The average annual egg production of the Indian duck is 90 to 100. Ducks are hardy and are free from contagious diseases. The birds are largely reared in the eastern and southern parts of the country.

ANIMAL PRODUCTS—Besides animal products of milk and wool, the principal animal products of India are blood, bones, ivory, tallow, and hides and skins. Bones are used as manure and for the manufacture of buttons, handles, toys, glue and are a source of superphosphates. Supply of horns comes from U.P., Punjab, Madras and Bengal. Buttons, toys, manure, glue, gelatine, etc., are made by horns. Ivory is used for the manufacture of ivory goods, bones and teeth. This supply comes from Assam, Western Ghats and Mysore. Tallow is derived from the fat of beef, mutton and goats. Its printing uses are as an adulterant, lubricant, and illuminant and it is also used in the manufacture of soaps and candles.

There is considerable export and trade in livestock products, while dairy products, such as condensed milk and cream, milk foods for infants and invalids, butter and cheese, comprise the main imports. Bones and horns are exported. At the same time, there is a two-way trade in hides, skins and wool.

LIVESTOCK & POULTRY CENSUS

(Livestock and Poultry in lakhs)

A.—Livestock	1956	1951
1. Cattle		
(*a*) Males over 3 years ..	642	618
(*b*) Females over 3 years ..	497	498
	1956	1951
(*b*) Females over 3 years ..	223	219
(*c*) Young stock ..	162	147
Total Buffaloes	448	434
3. Sheep ..	387	388
(*c*) Young stock	450	495
Total Cattle	1,589	1,551
2. Buffaloes		
(*a*) Males over 3 years ..	63	68
	1956	1951
4. Goats ..	566	471
5. Horses & Ponies ..	15	15
6. Other livestock ..	3,071	2,922
B.—Poultry ..	974	434

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FORESTS IN INDIA

FOREST WEALTH OF INDIA—The forests in India play an important part in the country's agricultural and economic development. More than a fifth of the land surface of our country or some 2.8 lakh square miles is covered by forests. Every year about 500 million cubic feet of hard wood and 50 million cubic feet of soft wood are produced in our forests. Of the Filk forest regions, Madhya Pradesh, Assam, Tripura, Kerala and Mysore, Tripura has the richest forest areas in the country. In Tripura nearly 60 per cent of the total area is under forests, while in Assam more than 44 per cent is forest area. Compared to the per capita forest area of 3.5 hectares (hectares=2.471 area) in the U.S.S.R. and 1.8 hectares in U.S.A., India has an area of only 0.2 hectares. The forest area is also unevenly distributed and the annual productivity per acre is 2.5 cft., below the average yield of forests in France (56.8 cft.), Japan (37.0 cft.) and U.S.A. (18.0 cft.). The Forest Policy Resolution of 12, 1952, therefore suggested that India as a whole should aim at maintaining one-third of its total land area under forests ; proportion being 60 per cent in hilly regions and 20 per cent in the plains. Forests provide employment for nearly a million people. India contains an infinite variety of types of forest vegetation, governed by the variations in climate, soil elevation and other local factors. The forests of India are a source of considerable wealth. They yield valuable timber. Our railway system leans heavily on Indian timber. Teak, sal, deodar, chir and sheesham and many varieties of useful timber come from forests. Besides providing timber, fuel industries depend on timber resources. The forests also yield large quantities of fuel. The variety and abundance of Indian economic forest products are perhaps unequalled in any other similar area in any other country. Forests yield medicinal herbs and raw materials for the manufacture of paper, matches, rubber, resin and terpentine.

Following closely on the climatic and geographical variations, we have a great variety of forests in our country. Heavy rainfall tracts have thick evergreen forests. The regions with moderate rainfall support moist deciduous forests in which a few but very valuable varieties grow, including the very important teak of the South and *Sal* of the North. Dry deciduous forests and thorn forests are all that areas of low rainfall can support.

FOREST DEFECTS AND REMEDIES—There is a shift in seasons and lowering of agricultural yields due to erosion and floods. The extension of Rajasthan desert, recurring floods which have become a frequent feature in India and the erosion of Sivalik hills in the Punjab are attributable to fast vanishing forests. The Government have initiated many schemes for the forest development of India.

In the Government Schemes, special emphasis is being given to plantation of new forests, re-habilitation of degraded forests, construction and

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improvement of forest roads, surveys, etc. The main schemes are as follows—

To make people aware of the utility and need of tree-planting, *Vanamahotsava*—the annual festival of planting trees on a nation-wide scale—was started in 1950. Vanamohotsava week is celebrated by planting sapplings of common plants such as *babul, peepul, mango, neem* and *bamboo.* To provide incentive for sustained and successful work, the Government of India instituted all-India shields, the *Rajendra Shield* for the best district, the *Jawahar Shield* for the best village and *Sardar Patel Shield* for the best university in planting trees as a part of *Vanamahotsava* campaign.

There is a *Central Board for Forest Utilization*, set up in 1939. It deals with various issues relating to forest research programmes, scientific exploitation of forest resources, etc. *The Central Board of Forestry* was constituted in 1950 for the purpose of evolving all-India policy to increase the area under forests. Its various functions are—(1) maintenance of adequate standards for training of officers, (2) co-ordination of forest researches conducted in Central and State institutes, (3) promotion of legislation necessary for the management of private forests, (4) adoption of conservation measures affecting forests resources and soil. *Soil Conservation Work* is being carried on a more intensive scale. Soil Conservation Research, Demonstration and Training Centres are maintained by the *Central Soil Conservation Board* at Dehra Dun, Kotal, Vasad, Bellary, Ootacamund, Chatra (Nepal), Chandigarh and Agra. The *Desert Afforestation Research Station, Jodhpur* carries on research activities on forestry, agrostology and agronomy. A Pasture Development Scheme for reclamation and control of Rajasthan Desert has been launched in nine districts of Rajasthan. An integrated All-India Soil and Land Use Survey Scheme is being executed by the Central Soil Conservation Board with four zonal centres at Delhi, Nagpur, Bangalore and Haringhata.

FOREST TYPES IN INDIA—Indian forests are divided into five types—(1) *Evergreen,* (2) *Deciduous,* (3) *Dry,* (4) *Hill,* (5) *Tidal or Littoral.* Evergreen flourishes where rainfall is 80″ to 120″. Such regions are the west coast of the Peninsula and the Eastern Sub-Himalayan tract. These forests include many species of great economic value, such as ebony, teak, rosewood, ironwood, bamboos, neem and tamarind. *Deciduous* (rainfall 60″ to 80″) occupies the larger part of the Deccan and is also known as monsoon forests. The trees are large-sized and form very remarkable timbers, such as, teak, salt, paduk, redwood, sandal wood, anjan etc. *The Dry forests* (rainfall 30″ to 40″) are found in the desert regions of Rajasthan and the Punjab and the plants are characterised by thick and fleshy stems and leaves and mostly consist of thickets of shrubs and a few stunted trees : many of them are leafless. *The Hill forests* are found in South India above 5,000 feet and in the Himalayas above 3,000 feet altitude. The trees are evergreen, of which the following are the most prominent—

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oak, picea, deodar, pines, firs, chestnut, walnut, maple, elm ash, birches, laurels, poplar, rhododendron and spices of abics. *The Littoral forests* are found in the deltas of the Ganges, the Mahanadi, tht Indus and also to some extent in the regions washed by the high tide and salt water. They are rich sources of fuel. These forests are known as Mangrove Forests.

NATIONAL FOREST POLICY— *The national forest policy* was enunciated in 1952. Among the lanlmarks of the new policy is the recognition of the intrinsic right of forests to a permanent and adequate share of land. So the proportion of land which should be permanently maintained under forests has been fixed. Thus, while in the Indo-Gangetic plain where slope is imperceptible and erosion is not a serious problem, the average proportion of forest land to be reserved need not be more than 20 p.c. of the total land area ; in the mountainous tracts, with higher rainfall, a much greater area (about 60 p.c.) must be maintained under forest growth. This means that India as a whole should aim at maintaining one-third of its total land area under forests, the proportion being 60 p.c. in the Himalayan, Deccan and other mountainous tracts and 20 p.c. in the plains. The new policy directs pointed attention towards reconditioning of hills and dales, the immobilization of the Rajasthan desert, the prevention of the encroachment of sea-sands on coastal tracts, the rationalization of shifting cultivation and control of soil erosion in general. The policy legislates for the functional classification of forests, such as "protection", "national" and "village" forests.

CLASSIFICATION OF FORESTS—Forests in India are classified according to—(*a*) Ownership, (*b*) Legal status, (c) Composition. From the ownership point of view, forest area is divided into, (*i*) States, (*ii*) Communal and (*iii*) Private. The forests owned by State Forest Departments comprise nearly 95.4 p.c. of the total forest area, *viz.*, 269,915 sq. miles. The Communal and Private forests are now only 4.6 p.c. of the total forest area.

From the administrative point of view, forests have been classified into *Reserved, Protected and Unclassified.* The first category is reserved for Government use and no entry is allowed to any member of the public. The protected forests are under the control of the Department, but contracts for their exploitation are given and the public are allowed to make use of them within the terms of the contracts. The Unclassified forests consist of shrubs and trees in villages. They are not under the control of the Department.

From the point of view of growth, forests are classified into coniferous and non-coniferous. In India, forests are mostly non-coniferous or broad leaves. This is natural in a tropical country. On the hilly parts of the country, however, coniferous and in the valleys and terai areas mixed types of forests grow.

From the point of view of the outturn, forests are classified inot *Merchant-*

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able and *Inaccessible* (unprofitable). The Merchantable forests constitute 73.1 p.c. of the total forest area, 55.1 p.c. being Reserved and Protected. Nearly 68,000 sq. miles or 26.9 p.c. are inaccessible and, therefore, unprofitable.

SOIL CONSERVATION—The Central Soil Conservation Board has been functioning from 1953 for systematic soil conservation work. It undertakes soil analysis and combats soil erosion. It is responsible for organising, co-ordinating and initiating research in soil conservation and imparting training to nominees of different State Governments in soil conservation work. The Board is running nine research centres, located at Dehra Dun, Ootacamund, Vasad, Kotah, Jodhpur, Chandigarh, Agra, Bellary and Chhatras but of these the first four are also Training and Demonstration Centres.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP—Under the Constitution, the jurisdiction over forests vests in the States (Item No. 19, List II of the Seventh Schedule). The revenue from these is derived from the sale of timber, fuel, bamboo, fodder grass and other minor products, such as, lac, tanning materials, gums, resins, medicinal herbs, etc. It also includes fees for grazing and the proceeds of the sale of confiscated drift and wind wood. Expenditure on the management and collection of forest revenue is debited to the expenditure head "Forest." Forest Department is treated as a commercial department and the interest on capital outlay is debited to it. Most of the capital expenditure is, however, met out of current revenue.

The forest administration of the Government of India is carried on in their Department of Agriculture. The Inspector-General of Forests is the technical adviser to the Government in forest matters. Forests are, however, a provincial subject. For the purpose of administration, the States are divided into one or more Forest Circles, each in charge of a Conservator of Forests; while in those States where three or more forest circles exist, there is also a Chief Conservator who is the head of the Department of his State. Circles are divided into a number of Forest Divisions, in the charge of members of the Superior Forest Service. Each Division contains a number of Ranges, in the charge of Forest Rangers or Deputy Rangers. Heavy Divisions are also sometimes divided into subdivisions. The Ranges are sub-divided into a number of rounds and beats.

FOREST EDUCATION AND RESEARCH—The scientific forest management in India owes its inception to Dr. Brandis, professor of Bombay from the University of Bonn, who was engaged by the Government of India in 1856 as Superintendent of teak forests in Burma. Later in 1864, he was appointed first Inspector-General of Forests in India. It was a result of his initiative that Forest Departments were organised throughout India.

The nucleus of forest research and education in India is traceable to a forest school, started in 1878 in Dehra Dun under the auspices of the

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Survey of India. The school enjoys the distinction of being first of its kind in British Commonwealth. By 1906 this institution become the nucleus around which the existing organisations of the Forest Research Institute and Colleges have been built up.

Primarily the work of the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun conducts research in forestry and forest products. Four excellent museums are

MILK PRODUCTION IN INDIA—Dairying. like agriculture, is maintained by the Institute, such as *Timber Museum, Museum of Indian forest products, Museum containing models to demonstrate Silvicultural practices and evils of soil erosion. The fourth museum draws attention to the extent of insect damages to Indian trees and timber.*

The *Indian Forest College* at Dehra Dun was originally started in 1926 for training I. F. S. officers, but was closed after 1932 and was restarted for training for Superior Forest Service officers in the Provincial Forest Service. The College is housed in the Forest Research Institute building and well-equipped with lecture and common rooms and biological and laboratories. The *Coimbatore Forest College* taken up by the Government of India in 1948, has been greatly expanded now.

Indian Forest Rangers College, formerly known as the Forest School, is also situated at Dehra Dun. The course lasts for two years. Another forest institute has been started at Bangalore, the first institution in India outside Dehra Dun.

INDIA'S FOREST PRODUCTS AND USES—India has 3,000 species of economic plants, besides a number of animal products. Apart from timber for structural purposes and fuel, forests supply wood from which an increasing variety of things are made today. Acetic acid, acetone, methyll alcohol, certain oils and creosote are some of the derivatives of wood. We may mention also valuable timber species, such as conifers (*pines, firs, deodars*), the principal species of the sub-tropical zones ; and the well-known *teak* which is met with throughout the Deccan plateau. The chief among other species of commercial importance are *dipterocarpus, acacias, sissoo, sandalwood* and *bamboos.* The forests, in addition, yield a bewildering variety of minor forest products which are utilised in indigenous medicine and industry. The various plants and their derivatives account for items, such as, essential oils, resin, gums, medicinal herbs, fatty oils, vegetable dyes, tans, soap-berries, fibres, flooses, edible wild plants, canes, grasses. This is not all. Animal products, such as, honey, beewax, lac, bones, hides and horns, play an important part in the home market and abroad. Out-turn of produce of Indian forests is of two kinds : (1) *Major produce* consisting of timber and firewood and (2) *Minor products* consisting of medicinal plants, essential oils, resins, fatty oils and fats, waxes, starches, gums, mucilages, tans, dyes, bamboos, canes, fibres, flosses and grasses, animal products like honey, lac, ivory and beewax and materials for packing and wrapping.

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DESCRIPTION OF FOREST PRODUCTS— *Oil trees* are Chandan or Sandalwood, found in Southern India (Mysore, Coorg, Western Ghats, Nilgiris). It is a hard, close grained, yellowish brown wood, strongly scented by the oil. It makes beautiful carved boxes and small articles. The oil is also extracted from the seeds and nuts of various other trees, such as *Chalmugra, Satinwood, Croton, Coconut, Palm, Pine, Deodar; Kusum; Neem, Mahua, Garjan.*

The gum and resin-yielding trees of India are *Babul, Catechu, Sal, Pine, Mango* and *Banyan. Asofoedita* or *hing* is available in Kashmir only.

Sal is one of the most important timber trees of India and very hard, heavy and tough wood with reddish brown colour. It is a large tree with glossy foliage and grows freely in the northern and central Indian regions. The wood is largely used for building construction and railway sleepers.

Teak (*Sagun*) is a large deciduous tree with grey bark which peels off easily, grown mainly in the frost-free parts of India and is a strong wood of great durability. It has long rough leaves and small oval fruit with a stone in it. It is immune from attacks of white ants and insects for very long periods. It grows in the Deccan plateau in Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Bihar, Bombay and Madras. It does not corrode iron. It is mainly used for boat and ship-building, railway carriages and sleepers, tool handles and furniture, etc. Other minor uses are the extraction of tar for medical purposes and the leaves are given to the tasar silk-worm.

Jarul has mauve flowers. It bears fruits in a woody capsule about one inch long. Timber of Jarul is used in Assam and Burma for building boats and cart wheels.

Arjun is heavier and harder wood than teak. It grows all over the deciduous region.

Kusum is a very heavy, hard and tough wood. It grows in the deciduous forests. 'Lac' insects are also reared on it.

Ebony is a very dark green or greenish black wood of great strength. It is obtained all over the deciduous regions excepting N.E. parts.

Siris is found all over India and is a popular choice for a roadside tree, because it grows quickly and rises to its full height within a few years. The distinctive features of Siris are its large pods which hang on the tree when it has been stripped of its leaves. It has also rounded brush-like flowers of a greenish yellow colour which have a delightful fragrance. The wood of Siris is not much used in India but substantial quantities are exported to Europe, where it is used for furniture as a substitute for walnut.

Palas is important for its crop of 'lac' insects. It grows largely in Chotanagpur and also over the plains of northern India.

Mahua is very common in Chotanagpur area. Its flowers are important articles of food. A course spirit is distilled from Mahua.

Semul is well-known for the cotton it yields. Its wood is very soft and perishable and is suitable for matchbox manufacture.

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Jarool is of medium strength and is employed for making cheap classes of furniture. It is found mainly in Assam, West Bengal, and is also found in Chotanagpur.

Deodar or Himalayan cedar is the most important timber tree of the Western Himalayas. It grows from 100 to 200 feet in height. The wood is moderately hard, scented, oily and very durable. It is used for building construction, particularly for doors and windows.

Pine—The Blue Pine or *Kail* as it is popularly known is a large evergreen conifer with bluish feathery foliage. It often reaches 120 ft. in height and is found throughout the temperate Himalayan region at altitudes ranging from 6,000 to 10,000 feet.

Shisham (*Sissoo*) is a large deciduous tree which grows near river banks from the Punjab to Assam. It is a favourite road-side trees. The sapwood is perishable but the heart-wood is heavy, hard and durable. It is largely used for furniture. It also makes lasting carts, boats and wheel spokes.

Toon—A handsome fast-growing big tree with many uses, growing in moist localities throughout India, often reaching a height of 80 feet with a girth of 10 feet. The bark of the toon is used to make medicine and the flowers to make a yellow dye. The wood is excellent for furniture, and takes polish very well on its red grain.

Oak is available in Eastern Himalayas, Khasi Hills and Manipur. It is used for buildings, agricultural implements, axe-handles.

Rosewood is found in various places from Nepal to Travancore. It is used extensively for furniture, cabinet-work, keels of vessels, agricultural implements, combs, ornamental articles, finely carved chairs and tables.

Satinwood is found in the dry forests of Circars, Konkan, Deccan and Karnatak and is common in Satpura range. It is largely used for cabinet work, picture frames, furniture, etc.

Fir is grown in outer Himalayas, the Punjab and Kashmir and is used for packing cases, crates, shingles, boards and paper pulp.

Babul tree grows in Western India and is used for all forms of agricultural implements.

Sundri is available in the deltaic regions of Bengal, particularly in the Sunderbans and on the coasts of Orissa. It is a very hard wood.

Canes and Bamboos are extensively found in Eastern Nepal, Sikkim, Bhutan, Assam, Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Deccan, Konkan and Coromandal coast. Bamboos grow everywhere in India. It has numerous varieties, from giant bamboo of Assam to dwarfs of dry region. It is used for paper-making and for other various objects. Cane is used for basket works, mats, walking sticks, ropes and in the manufacture of paper.

Grasses are generally used for fodder for the cattle. *Sabai* grass is used for paper-making. *Munjh* grass growing in all parts of India and specially in the Punjab is used for thatching, paper-making, chairs, baskets,

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ropes and cordage. *Rhea* grass found in Assam and Bengal is used for belting, sheeting, lace, net, cordage, sacking, etc.

Lac is an important Indian forest product. The lac-producing trees are palas, peepul and kusum. The principal places of production are M.P., Bihar, Bengal, Assam, and Gujarat. Chotanagpur in Bihar raises 60 per cent of India's total.

Bee Wax and Honey are also important forest products. Bee wax is used in candles, foundry moulding, calico printing and medicine. It is largely used by the shoemakers of India.

Gums and Resins—yielding trees in India are *Babul, Catechu, Sal, Pine, Mango,* and *Banyan* and are worked for making resin and turpentine oil. Resin is used for shellac adulteration, in paper mills, soap factories, etc., while turpentine has demand for medicine and varnish.

Tanning materials—Various tanning materials are found from Indian forests, most important of which is myrobalan which is in abundance in Madras, Bombay, West Bengal, Chotanagpur, Orissa and other places. Myrobalan is a great tanning material.

Sandalwood is used for producing sandalwood oil and from oil soaps and scents are made. At present Mysore and Kerala supply all the sandalwood needed by the world. Sandalwood is the exclusive monopoly of the State, both in Kerala and in Mysore.

DAIRY FARMING

MILK PRODUCTION IN INDIA—Dairying like agriculture is one of the basic industries of India, and milk and milk products contribute no less than Rs. 620 crores to the national dividend. The huge quantity of about 1,500,000 maunds of milk produced per day in the country, is obtained from about 67,000,000 cows and buffaloes maintained in nearly 40,000,000 small fragmented holdings throughout the country.

Dairy farming has been in a backward condition simply for the fact that it has not received the attention it deserves. Poor quality cattle, insufficiency of feed and fodder, high incidence of disease and lack of organised production, improper handling of milk and milk products are problems that require urgent solution. Before 1949, there were only 75 dairy farms in India, most of them run by military or civil departments of the Government. The First Plan set up Rs. 7·8 crores for 27 schemes. The Second Plan aimed at milk supply schemes for 36 urban areas and allotted Rs. 17·8 crores. In the Third Plan, the aim is to have milk supply schemes in 75 cities. In addition, there will be 30 rural creameries and 8 milk product factories. The proposed allocation is Rs. 40 crores.

MILK ADULTERATION—The Agricultural Marketing Adviser to the Government of India says in his report of 1950 that "adulteration

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of foodstuffs, including milk, is not uncommon in Western countries, but the position is nowhere as bad as in our country. Adulteration is so widespread that consumers have become almost indifferent to quality."

Legal standards prescribed under State Food Adulteration Acts are lower than the constants for locally produced pure milk and therefore leave room for 'legalized' adulteration with water or skimmed milk. There is a strong feeling in the country that official control of the quality of market milk has been very lax.

The enforcement of the Food Administration Acts, which rests entirely in the hands of the municipal authorities, has been most unsatisfactory.

POOR YIELD AND LOW CONSUMPTION—The average annual yield of milk per cow in India is 413 lb. which is about the lowest in the world, as compared to 8,000 lb. in the Netherlands, 7,000 lb. in Australia, 6,000 lb. in Sweden and over 5,000 lb. in the U.S.A. The following table gives the maximum annual yields of world's finest dairy breeds :—

The daily average quantity of milk available per head in India is about 5.8 oz. ; quite a few do not get any milk at all or even any milk products. In some cities the average quantity of milk consumed per person is not even one ounce a day.

As compared to this situation, the daily average production per head in New Zealand is 244 oz., 148 oz. in Denmark, 37 oz. in U.S.A. and 140 oz. in Britain. The consumption figures are 35 oz. in U.S.A., 30 oz. in Britain, 56 oz. in New Zealand and 61 oz. in Sweden. In other countries the yield of cows per lactation averages from 3,000 to 4,000 lb. but the better Indian breeds yield only 1,500 lb.

According to the 1951 cattle-census, the average per capita consumption of milk and milk-products works out at 5.5 ounces per day. It is as high as 16.89 oz. in the Punjab and 15.72 oz. in Rajasthan, while in Orissa it is as low as 2.64 oz. Except the Punjab and Rajasthan, the major States are deficient in milk-consumption by the standard of ten ounces per day recommended by nutrition experts.

Excepting some 'Milk Pockets' or areas of concentrated milk production in Bombay, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Saurashtra, where a large quantity of surplus milk is available during the flush season, milk is produced in the Indian villages on a small scale—the average daily output amounting to a mere 2.5 mds.

RESEARCH ASSOCIATIONS—*Indian Dairy Science Association* was formed in 1948 with the object of advancing the cause of the science of dairying in India by co-ordinating and unifying the activities of dairy scientists in the country towards rapid advancement of nation's dairy industry.

Indian Dairy Council was inaugurated in 1948 with the object of promoting and safeguarding the interests of the dairy industry in India.

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It is a common platform on which representatives of various interests of the milk industry, such as producers, consumers. traders and technicians, could meet together for developing it on sound and economic footing.

LARGE-SCALE PRODUCTION OF MILK—Steps are being taken by several States to organise the supply of milk on the Governmental basis. Government of Bombay has established a very large milk colony at Aarey near Bombay under the most modern conditions, where milk is supplied to Bombay city after pasteurization. The dairy at Aarey Milk Colony continues to handle nearly 5,000 mds. of milk daily. Similar big milk colony has been established by the Government of the West Bengal at Haringhata near Calcutta, which supplies milk to Calcutta through numerous milk depots. The Central Dairy of the Delhi milk scheme started functioning in 1st November, 1959. The milk colony at Madhavaram near Madras was started on the 4th November, 1959. The 6,000-md. dairy is under construction in Calcutta. The work on the projects of Bombay's second dairy and Ahmedabad dairy are also making good progress. The milk supply schemes have also been carried out in Poona and Guntur. Buildings have been constructed for dairies at Chandigarh, Gaya, Trivandrum, Bhopal, Agartala and Coimbatore. Construction work was also started for the dairies at Patna, Jaipur, Hissar and Lucknow and preliminaries completed for starting construction work at Agra, Nellore, Cuttack and Srinagar. The Kaira Co-operative Milk Union, Anand continues to make steady progress in the production of butter, milk powder, and condensed milk. Work on buildings for Amritsar milk products factory is being continued. The aid of £800,000 received from New Zealand under the Colombo Plan was utilised for the Delhi Milk Scheme and action initiated for securing equipment against the additional aid of £255,000 from that country for the Madras and Patna projects. An additional contribution of $317,000 was made by UNICEF for the Rajkot and Ahmedabad dairy projects, raising the total contribution by this Organisation to $892,000.

DAIRY EDUCATION—*The National Dairy Research Institute, Karnal* (*Punjab*) is the principal educational and research centre in the country in dairy science. Allied to it is the Dairy Science College where young men from different regions are trained to become dairy technologists and dairy managers. It is the only institution in the country giving degree instruction in this field, although diploma training is given elsewhere, such as Bangalore, Aarey and Allahabad. There are six divisions in the Institute, the Dairy Husbandry, Dairy Technology, Dairy Bacteriology, Dairy Engineering, Chemistry and Dietics Divisions. The college which is attached to the Institute, offers a three-year course leading to a degree. At the headquarters of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, *Central Dairy Information Bureau* has been set up for collecting technical information and to render necessary advice to those engaged in the dairy industry. *The Veterinary Research Institute* at Izzatnagar, the *Dairy Research Institute*

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at Bangalore and *Cattle Breeding Station* at Jabalpur carry on researches on animal husbandry. The Veterinary Research Institute, besides teaching and advisory work, manufactures biological products. The Dairy Institute carries on development work in respect of pedigree herds of Red Sindhi, Gir and Tarparkar cows and Murrah buffaloes. The Cattle Breeding Station carries on cross-breeding of cattle under controlled conditions.

GHEE PRODUCTION IN INDIA—The annual production of ghee in India is estimated at one crore and fifteen lakh maunds. In order of importance, the main ghee-producing areas are the Punjab, U.P., Madras and Bihar, which account for 15.7, 13.8, 9.8 and 5.4 of the total production respectively. Thus three-fifths of the ghee production is concentrated in Northern and Western India and the remaining two-fifths is scattered in the rest of the country. The annual per capita consumption of ghee in India is highest in Gwalior and Sind with 15.5 and 11.2 seers respectively and the lowest in Hyderabad and Bengal with 1.1 and 1.3 seers respectively. Of the total ghee production, nearly 30 p.c. is retained by the producers for domestic consumption and 70 p.c. is marketed.

India imports about 66,000 maunds of ghee mostly by land frontier routes from Nepal. India also exports about 66,000 maunds of ghee to the Straits Settlements, Burma, Malaya Federation and Africa. (*Ghee Marketing Report of the Government of India,* 1948).

With a view to distinguishing genuine from adulterated *ghee,* the Government of India have been developing an organisation for grading and marking of genuine *ghee.* The grading organisation started its work in 1938 and its mark is now known as *Agmark.*

At present the grading under *Agmark* is voluntary. The ghee adulteration by mixing *Vanaspati* (hydrogenated oil) has become so widespread that the Government of India have been compelled to put the matter in the hands of an expert committee, known as Ghee Adulteration Committee, which has recommended that every lot of *Vanaspati* produced in a factory should be accompanied by a certificate that it gives Baudouin test ; that the *Vanaspati* should be coloured orange by using carotine oil concentrate as colouring medium, in addition to sesame oil ; and that the *Vanaspati* should be fortified by synthetic vitamin 'A', so that its nutritive value may be increased. The Government have accepted the first and the last recommendations. As regards second, further experiments are being conducted, for the colour suggested was unstable and involving expenditure in dollars.

WILD LIFE IN INDIA

INDIA'S RICHNESS IN WILD LIFE—India has a rich and varied fauna comprising fish, birds and mammals. The diversity which manifests itself in the variations in rainfall, temperature and climate, deter-

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mines the distribution of its wild life. India has all the types of forests, with the result that practically all types of birds and animals are found in India, *i.e.*, lion, rhino, bison, sambar, blackbuck, hornbill and so many others. More than 500 different species of mammals are found in India. Our forests perhaps have some of the rarest and most magnificent animals. The Indian bison is the largest of the existing bovines and the Indian rhinoceros, the greatest of all rhinoceroses now inhabiting the world. The Indian elephant is much more handsome compared to its African cousin. The deer family is still richer and some of the most beautiful species, *e.g.*, chital, blackbuck, etc., are found in India. Chital is considered to be the most beautiful of all species of deer. Among the reptiles, the most dreaded species like cobra, krait, viper, etc., are all present.

PHYSICAL REGIONS OF ANIMALS—For the purpose of distinguishing the wild life in India, we can divide the country into three broad physical regions—(1) *Himalayas,* (2) *Indo-gangetic Plain* and (3) *Deccan.*

Himalayas—The Great Himalayas occupies the region between the gorges of the Indus and the Brahmaputra covering a length of about 1,500 miles. The Himalayas can again be divided into three regions —Western Himalayas, Central Himalayas and Eastern Himalayas.

Western Himalayas—supports rich and varied wild life—such as markhor, ibex, wild yak, choral, Tibetan antelope, brown and black bear, tahr, Kashmir stag or hangul, barking deer, snow leopard, serow, goral, sambar and ammon. The markhor, wild sheep, snow leopard and brown bear occur nearer the snow line above 10,000 ft. on Tibetan border, and in Ladakh, in particular, one comes up against ammon, Tibetan antelope, wild yak, bharal, ibex and Tibetan gazelle.

Central Himalayas—While most of the Western Himalayan wild life persist in this region, ibex and markhor disappear and brown bear are seldom met with to the east of the Ganga. Panther is plentiful. The main sports of the Central Himalayas are Jaunsar-Bawar and Tehri-Garhwal and Kumaun.

Eastern Himalayas—Both panther and tiger are common along the foothills. Occasionally the great one-horned rhinoceros is also met with.

Indo-Gangetic Plain—The representative animals in this region are—black buck, nilgai and pigs in the centre, tiger, panther, sambar, barking deer, elephant and rhinoceros. So at the *foot of the Himalayas* we have tiger, panther, sambar, bear, barking deer, elephant, buffalo, and rhinoceros (Assam and Bengal), chital, hog deer, swamp deer and four-horned antelope. In *central plain,* we have black buck, nilgai, pig, porcupine ; in the Thar desert we find desert cat, desert fox, desert hare and species of desert gerbilles. The moist eastern tracts have rhinoceros, buffalo, swamp deer. *In the Aravallis* and *Southern Highlands,* we have tiger, panther, sambar and barking deer.

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Deccan—In the open savannah lands of the Deccan, we have gazelle, antelope, jungle cat, common fox, mongoose, hyaenas, jackal, wolf, palm squirrel, hares anl rodents. In the deciduous forests, we have bison, sambhar, spotted deer, sloth bear and wild dog. In more humid zone, we have swamp deer, buffalo and elephant. In Nilgiris, Palnis and Anamalais and evergreen forests of the Western Ghats, we have wild elephant, bison, Nilgiri langur, lion-tailed macaque, Nilgiri brown mongoost and Malabar civet. It may be noted that the exclusive feature of the Deccan animal life is constituted by the spotted deer, nilgai, black buck, four-horned antelope and sloth bear—species which do not occur anywhere else outside India.

WILD LIFE PRESERVATION—The revival of interest in the conservation of wild life in India is a part of gentral renaissance which has transformed the country since independence. The indiscriminate and incessant attacks of sportsmen have gradually wiped out several species of wild life in our country. Many valuable animals are all but extinct, thanks to the indiscriminate use of the gun and passion to kill for sports and profit.

Wild life protection is provided for throughout India in the reserved forests under the sporting rules of tht State forest departments and generally through the implementation of the Arms Act and in some States, the provisions of special Acts for the protection of animals and birds. Some States have created Wild Life Department.

Sanctuaries and National Parks are being created for the protection of the vanishing animals of India. The details of these places are given here, which will show increasing interest for wild life protection throughout India.

The animals which are gradually vanishing from Indian forests are lions, rhinos, Nilgiri langur, lion-tailed monkey, Indian wild ass, Kashmiri stag, musk deer, brown antler deer, pigmy hog, clouded and snow leopards, black-buck, bustard, wild buffalo and the like. In addition to these, crocodiles are being killed for their skins, peacocks for their feathers, muskdeer for musk.

PROBLEM OF WILD LIFE IN INDIA—Disafforestation in India during the last two thousand years has totally changed the face of many parts of India. Sportsman's whip has butchered wild life and certain rare animals are nearing extinction. Indiscriminate cultivation in the interior of forests brings about needless interference with "Nature's reserves." The importance of forests, through which alone genuine wild life can be preserved, is coming to be realised more and more. Realising the need of preserving the wild life of the country, the Government of India set up in April, 1952, an *Indian Board of Wild Life* to assist those in this line.

We now find only last surviving lions in the Gir forest in Kathiawar and Indian rhinoceros in Assam, Bengal and Nepal. There are other wild animals which are dwindling in numbers in all States. Several of the

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State Governments have set up their State Wild Life Boards. Game Reserves and Wild Life Sanctuaries have been established.

The following proposals have been made by the Indian Board of Wild Life to save the extinction of animals—(1) Setting up of sanctuaries, parks, reserves, (2) legislation for the protection of wild animals and birds, (3) appointment of observer for wild life, (4) adoption of stringent measures against destruction of wild life by employing poisoned weapons, nets, snares and explosives, (5) setting up of permanent machinery to keep constant vigil and for management of wild life throughout the country, (6) creation of buffer belts round the sanctuaries where the shooting of animals is to be prohibited, (7) periodical inoculation of domestic cattle in the neighbourhood of all national parks and sanctuaries against cattle-borne diseases, (8) prohibition of the export of trophies except under certificate of ownership, (9) prohibition of netting of birds and animals during close periods and their sale, (10) fixation of annual limits regarding export and import of animals for the purpose of zoos, circuses and scientific institutions, (11) wild life day on the 7th July each year.

VARIETIES & DESCRIPTION OF ANIMALS—(a) **Himalayan Species**—(1) Sheep—shapu of Ladakh, Bhoral ; (2) Goat—Asiatic Ibex, markhor, Himalayan tahr, serow, goral, takin ; (3) Deer—Kashmir stag, musk deer ; (4) Bear—Himalayan brown bear, Himalayan black bear ; (5) Carnivora—snow leopard, clouded leopard.

(b) **Tibetan Species**—(1) Yak, Tibetan wild ass, Tibetan antelope, Tibetan gazelle, Great Tibetan sheep.

(c) **Indo-Gangetic Plain and the Deccan**—(1) *General*—Indian rhinoceros, Indian elephant, (2) Deer--Sambhar, spotted deer or chital, hog deer, swamp deer, barking deer, mouse deer ; (3) Antelopes—Nilgai, black buck, Indian gazelle, four-horned antelope ; (4) Bovines—Indian wild buffalo, gaur or Indian bison ; (5) Bear—sloth bear, Malayan bear ; (6) Carnivora—Asiatic lion, tiger, panther, hunting leopard or cheetah ; (7) Hyena—striped hyena ; (8) Dog—Indian wild dog ; (9) Goat—Nilgiri tahr.

Description of Animals— *Indian rhinoceros* is probably the largest of living rhinoceroses. It may reach 6 ft. at the shoulder with girth behind the shoulder of 11 ft. or more. This creature is in fair number in the Chitawan forests of the Nepal Terai of the Gandak river and it is also found in Bengal and Assam. Assam's rhinos are concentrated in the Kaziranga Sanctuary in Sibsagar district. The population of rhinos in this sanctuary is roughly estimated to be 250 to 300. Bengal rhinos are found in the Jalpaiguri district. *Elephants* are at present found in the forests of Coorg, Mysore and Travancore and in considerable number in the Orissa State, in the Terai of U.P., in the forests of Assam and Bengal and in some parts of Orissa. *Sambar* of India is the largest of forest deer in South-East Asia, found in the forest-clad hills in all parts of the country,

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specially in the South. *Chital or spotted deer* is found only in India and Ceylon and is widely distributed in India. *Nilgai or blue bull*—a kind of antelope so named on account of the colour of the fully matured animal is widely distributed, an exclusively Indian animal. *Black buck* is also exclusively Indian animal. *Indian buffalo* is becoming scarce and can be seen on Mahanadi river in the north-west corner of Orissa and in Assam. *Asiatic lion*—is now to be met with only in the Gir Forest of Saurashtra. A new home for lions has been made at Chandraprabha Wild Life Sanctuary, 43 miles from Banaras. *Tiger* is available in Chanda District (M.P.), Eastern Kumaun, Sunderban forests. *Panther*—there is but one species of panther in India. *Hyena* occurs freely all over India. The *Leopard* and the *Panther* are far more common than the tiger in all parts of India. A black variety, as beautiful as it is rare, is found in the extreme south of the peninsula. Wolves abound throughout the open country and the Indian fox, striped hyena and the jackal are also very common. The ox-tribe is represented in India by *Gaur* or the bison of the sportsmen. It has very short curved horns and its skull is enormously massive. *Indian gazelle* is found in many parts of India from Indus to the South. *Mouse deer* is a tiny creature. It is quite plentiful in some areas of Central India and Madras State. *Hog deer* is somewhat pig-like appearance and has hog-like movement. This deer is common in sub-Himalayan tracts and in Assam. *Clouded leopard* has dark and rich colouring. It is found only in the dense evergreen forests of Sikkim, Bhutan, and Assam. *Himalayan black bear* is fairly common in Kashmir and in other parts of the Himalayas and occasionally in the Terai forests. *Gaur* (Indian bison) is found in Mudumalai sanctuary in Madras.

BIRD PROTECTION—*National Committee for Bird Preservation* was formed in India in 1952 for the protection of some of the species of wild life, which are now in danger of extinction. There are in India about 1,500 main species of wild birds. These are again sub-divided into several smaller sub-species. An important factor contributing to the extinction of certain species was the indiscriminate killing of rare birds for their feathers. The following are the famous bird sanctuaries of India—(1) *Ghana Sanctuary* near Bharatpur (Rajasthan), about 100 miles south of Delhi and 30 miles west of Agra, is the finest bird sanctuary in India ; (2) *Vedanthagal Sanctuary,* some 500 odd miles south of Madras ; (3) *Seringapatam Sanctuary* in Mysore State.

NATIONAL PARKS AND SANCTUARIES IN INDIA

(*National Parks are created and modified only by an Act of legislature, whereas a Sanctuary can be declared by Government*).

Jammu & Kashmir—Three game sanctuaries in Jammu and three game sanctuaries in Kashmir ; one of them is at Dachigam, home of Kashmir stag.

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Punjab—Eleven game sanctuaries. In Pepsu there are game sanctuaries in the district of Kanda Ghat and in other reserved forests.

West Bengal—(1) Wild life sanctuary at *Gorumara* (Jalpaiguri) measuring 3.33 miles under Jalpaiguri Forest Division situated in Lower Tandu range, (2) *Chapramari Sanctuary* measuring 3.40 sq. miles in upper Tandu range. These two sanctuaries are mainly meant for the preservation of the rapidly vanishing Indian rhinoceros. (3) The biggest of Bengal sanctuary is *Jaldapara Sanctuary* measuring about 36 sq. miles, about 50 miles away to the east of Gorumara. Jaldapara sanctuary under Cooch Behar Forest Division is a rhino sanctuary where several species of deer may also be seen. The other two sanctuaries of Bengal are *Senchal* in Darjeeling and *Lothian Island* in 24 Parganas. Elephants are found in Gorumara and Chapramari and Jaldapara.

Assam—Assam has at present six very attractive game sanctuaries for the protection of rare animals of the State. Rhinos, bisons, elephants and buffaloes are some of the outstanding animals of Assam. (1) *Manas Game Sanctuary* spreads over 100 sq. miles on the north bank of the Brahmaputra in the Kamrup district. The sanctuary contains elephants, buffaloes, bisons, rhinos, bears, tigers, pigs and several kinds of deer including barking variety. The nearest railway station is Barpeta Road from where there is a cold-weather motorable road to the sanctuary entrance (2) *Sonai-Rupa Game Sanctuary,* Balipara, is in the Mangaldai sub-division of Darrang district. It contains a few rhinos, elephants, bisons in addition to other animals. It can be reached from Rangapara railway station and Tezpur Aerodrome by all-weather motorable road. It is 85 sq. miles in area. (3) *Pabha Buffalo Sanctuary,* 30 sq. miles, about 100 miles east of the Sonai-Rupta Sanctuary, is situated in North Lakhimpur. This is exclusively meant for the protection of wild buffalo in Assam. (4) *Kaziranga Sanctuary* is in Sibsagar district. Bounded by Mikir Hills in the south and Brahmaputra in the north, it is 160 sq. miles and is easily accessible from Calcutta by air. It lies in an easy-to-approach situation by the side of the Assam Trunk Road, at a distance of 150 miles from Gauhati. The nearest air port (Jorhat) is only 60 miles from here. This Sanctuary has Indian rhino, as well as the magnificent wild buffalo, sambar, swamp deer, hog deer, and pig ; wild elephants also can be seen occasionally. (5) *Orang Game Sanctuary* in Nowgong district is 26 sq. miles in area. (6) *Laokhowa Wild Life Sanctuary,* 24 sq. miles in area, is in the process of development. (7) *Tirup Frontier Tract National Park* is the remotest part of N. E. F. Agency.

Bihar—*Hazaribagh National Park* is 18 miles from the town of Hazaribagh and it is spread over 190 sq. miles of forest land. The wild life in the park consists of tiger, leopard, bear, sambhar, cheetal and other varieties of deer and birds of many kinds. To conserve her wild life,

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Bihar has reserved about 400 sq. miles of her hilly forest land in the Hazaribagh district.

Madhya Pradesh—(1) Tairoba Game Reserve, North Chanda Division, (2) Bori Game Reserve, Hosangabad Dn., (3) Shivapuri National Park (Gwalior), (4) Kanha National Park. This national park contains swamp deer, chital, black buck and other animals, such as bison, tiger, leopard, wild dog, sambar, peafowl, etc.

Bombay—(1) Krishnagiri National Park, Kanheri valley, (2) Wild Life Sanctuary & National Park, Kulgi & Virnoli, North Kinara Dist., (3) Elephant Islands.

Gujarat—The Gir forests are known as the last remaining 'habitat' of Asian lion. This place is only one and a half hour's flying time from Bombay Air Port to Keshod and thence some 40 miles by road.

Madras—*Mudumalai Game Sanctuary,* Nilgiri District, Guindy Park Reserve, Kodaikadu Reserve Forest (Tanjore), Bird Sanctuary at Vedanthangal in Chingleput. On the Ooty side of the Moyar lies *Mudumalai,* the largest wild life sanctuary and timber forests of Madras State. It occupies a space of about 174 sq. miles. Here are found gaur, tiger, bear, sambar, chital, wild pig, elephant, mouse deer, barking deer, panther, common langur, squirrel, etc.

Mysore—(1) Sanctuary for birds, near Seringapatam, (2) Fish Sanctuary, Ramnathpur, (3) Miniature National Park, Mysore Zoo, (4) Bandipur Game Sanctuary is 48½ miles from Mysore City and 50½ miles from Ootacamund. Bandipur is famous for its Indian bison or gaur and for large herd of chital. The forest covers 310 sq. miles, of which 22 sq. miles form the game sanctuary proper. The elephant, deer, bison, sambhar, panther and chital are the better known of many species. The *Venugopal Wild Life Park* here is a place for seeing wild game in its natural surroundings. (5) Nagarhol Game Sanctuary at Coorg. The total area of the forest including the sanctuary is about 140 sq. miles. The only approach to the sanctuary is by road from Mercare, which is 61 miles away.

Kerala—(1) Periyar Sanctuary. It is the most attractive of the sanctuaries of the country. It is set around a large expanse of water—the Periyar Lake—covering an area of 300 sq. miles. Wild elephant, bison, wild bear, sambhar, besides a variety of small game, are found here. It is 135 miles from Cochin and 88 miles from Madurai. (2) Peermade Game Association Area.

Andhra—Wild Life Sanctuary to be opened shortly in Cuddapah and Chittur districts on a patch of nearly 190 sq. miles of forest.

Uttar Pradesh—In Uttar Pradesh the most important and perhaps the largest in India is the *Corbett National Park,* near Ramnagar, covering an area of 125 sq. miles. Besides this important Park, there is the *Nanda*

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Devi Sanctuary at a altitude of 14,000 to 15,000 feet surrounded on all sides by the mighty peaks of the Nanda Devi group. The *Kansaru Sanctuary* in Dehra Dun division covers 28 miles. The *Chandraprabha Wild Life Sanctuary* has been established 43 miles from Banaras for Indian lion. This sanctuary covers an area of 30 miles and was established in 1957.

Orissa—There are at present four sanctuaries as detailed below—(1) *Debigarh Game Sanctuary* was established prior to 1931. It extends over an area of about 5½ sq. miles. The important wild life to be seen here is tiger, leopard, sambar, antelope, bison and nilgai. (2) *Raigode Game Sanctuary,* established during 1938-39, lies 23 miles south of Angul town. It is about 17 sq. miles in area. (3) *Chandika Game Sanctuary,* established in 1935, covers an area of about 12 sq. miles and is situated about 12 miles towards the west of the new capital, Bhubaneswar. (4) *Balukhand Sanctuary* was established during 1935. (5) A National Park in Simlipal Hills of Mayurbhanj has been opened.

Manipur—*Keibul Kajao Wild Life Sanctuary.* The Government of India has sanctioned Rs. 1,20,000 in the Second Five-Year Plan for this sanctuary. This sanctuary covers an area of about 20 miles bordering the Loktak Lake and abounds with the Sangaibrow antler, a rare specimen, now on the verge of extinction.

ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS IN INDIA—Calcutta, Hyderabad, Madras, Mysore, Trichur, Trivandrum, Poona, Bombay, Baroda, Junagadh; Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Udaipur, Kotan, Gwalior, Lucknow, Jaipur, Jodhpur; Bikaner. In Delhi, Zoological Park is being constructed according to the designs furnished by the German expert. The Zoo was formally opened on the 1st November, 1959.

TAXATION STRUCTURE IN INDIA

CENTRAL TAXES—The Central taxes in India are broadly divided into two kinds, namely, direct taxes and indirect taxes. Direct taxes are those taxes the incidence of which falls upon the payee, and the Indirect taxes are those the incidence of which is transferred by the payee to the ultimate buyer or the consumer. The revenues of the Union Government are divided into tax revenues and non-tax revenues. Tax revenues include both Direct taxes and Indirect taxes. Direct taxes are : Income Tax, including Corporation Tax, Expenditure Tax, Estate Duty, Taxes on Wealth, Gift Tax and Taxes on Railway Passenger Fares. All other taxes are Indirect taxes.

Details of the tax revenues are given below, with the estimated income under each head, according to the budget estimates for the year 1960-61. The figures are in crore of rupees.

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		Budget Estimates (1960-61)
I.	TAXES ON INCOME AND EXPENDITURE (i+ii+ii)	188.84
	(i) Taxes on Income other than Corporation Tax ..	105.00
	Less States' share	52.06
	Net receipts for the Centre	52.94
	(ii) Corporation Tax	135.00
	(iii) Expenditure Tax	0.90
II.	TAXES ON PROPERTY AND CAPITAL TRANSACTIONS (1+2+3+4+5)	11.91
	Estate Duty	3.00
	Less States' share	2.90
	1. Net receipts for the Union	0.10
	2. Tax on Wealth	70.0
	3. Gift Tax	0.80
	4. Stamps and Registration	3.44
	5. Land Revenue	0.57
III.	TAXES ON COMMODITIES AND SERVICES (1+2+3+4)	476.02
	1. Customs	162.50
	2. Union Excise Duties	380.64
	Less States' share	75.22
	Net Receipts for the Union	305.42
	3. Tax on Railway Passenger Fares	12.77
	Less States' share	12.66
	Net Receipts for the Union	0.11
	4. Other Taxes and Duties	7.99
IV.	TOTAL TAX REVENUE (I+II+III)	676.77

NON-TAX REVENUE OF THE UNION—The non-tax revenue income of the Union Government includes contributions from the Railways, Posts and Telegraphs, Currency and Mint (including profits of the Reserve Bank of India), forests, opium, irrigation, electricity, and road and water transport schemes.

		Budget Estimates (1960-61)
V.	ADMINISTRATIVE RECEIPTS	56.26
VI.	NET CONTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC UNDERTAKINGS (1+2+3+4)	52.01
	(1) Railways	5.64

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(2) Posts and Telegraphs	..	..	..	0.47
(3) Currency and Mint	..	..	..	46.95
(4) Others	..	..	..	1.05
VII. OTHER REVENUE	..	..	..	40.11
VIII. TOTAL REVENUE (IV+V+VI+VII)			..	825.15

UNION EXCISE DUTIES—Excise duties are Indirect taxes. They are levied on (1) commodities produced within the country, and (2) on narcotics, liquors, hemp, etc. Excise duty is charged on home goods during manufacture or before sale to home consumers. The former kind of excise duties is levied by the Government of India, while the latter kind is levied by the State Governments. Sugar, matches, motor spirit, cotton, tobacco, coffee, tea, vegetable oil are subject to excise duties. Details of the estimated revenue under budget proposals of 1960-61 are given below. The figures within brackets indicate the estimated revenue from the respective commodities. The figures are in lakh of rupees, and they indicate basic duties.

Motor Spirit (38,75); Kerosene (6,35); Sugar (46,40); Matches (18,00); Steel Ingots (12,00); Tyres and Tubes (10,50); Tobacco (43,74); Vegetable products (5,25); Coffee (1,35); Tea (7,65); Cotton cloth (44,55); Artificial silk (1,83); Cement (17,50); Footwear (1,35); Soap (2,05); Woollen fabrics (62); Electric fans (78); Electric bulbs (48); Electric batteries (1,54); Paper (7,75); Paints and Varnishes (1,30); Vegetable non-essential oils (13,09); Industrial fuel oils (8,00); Rayon and Synthetic fibres and yarn (2,30); Motor cars (6,28); Coal cess (3,75); Cess on crops (10); Cess on oils and oilseeds (30); Miscellaneous (11,45).

Besides, there are additional duties on sugar, textiles and tobacco. The total Union Excise Duties comes to Rs. 380,64 lakhs. Excluding States' share, the net receipts for the Union comes to Rs. 305,42 lakh.

CHANGES MADE IN 1960-61 BUDGET

Changes in Company Taxation—The Wealth Tax on companies companies has been abolished from April 1, 1960. The tax relating to excess dividends has also been abolished from that date. The tax proposals envisage implementation in its entirety of the new scheme of company taxation introduced in the budget for 1959-60. The rate of company taxation is fixed at 45 per cent, that is, at the same level at which it was provisionally fixed last year for purposes of advance payment for the assessment year ending March 31, 1951 ; smaller companies with total income not exceeding Rs. 25,000 will continue to be assessed at a figure 5 per cent less.

Changes in Income Tax—The following changes in Income-tax tax have been made : (1) extension of the period for which exemption is available under Section 15C of the Income-Tax Act to new industrial undertakings by a further period of five years, (2) increase in the limit up to which donations for charitable purposes qualify for exemption from

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tax from 5 per cent of total income or Rs. 1 lakh, whichever is less, to 7½ per cent of total income or Rs. 1½ lakh, whichever is less, (3) deduction, in computing the taxable income from property, of the full amount of taxes levied by a local authority and borne by the owner in respect of properties constructed before 1st April, 1950 as against half the amount of such taxes allowed at present and (4) taxation of business incomes of co-operative societies other than those connected with agriculture, rural credit and cottage industries, over an exemption limit of Rs. 15,000.

Changes in Estate Duty—The Estate Duty Amendment Act, Act, 1960, came into force on July 1, 1960. In pursuance of the resolutions passed by the State Legislatures concerned under Article 252(2) of the Constitution, this amendment makes the provisions of the Estate Duty Act applicable to the levy of Estate Duty on agricultural lands in all the States except West Bengal, Orissa and Jammu & Kashmir. These three States are excluded since (1) the West Bengal Legislature had not adopted the principal Act in respect of Estate Duty on agricultural lands, (2) the Orissa Legislature had passed a resolution that the principal Act should not apply to agricultural lands in the State from April 1, 1959, and (3) the Principal Act did not apply in respect of agricultural lands in Jammu and Kashmir and the existing condition continues.

ESTATE DUTY: It is levied on properties of a person after his death, just before such properties are transferred to his heirs. Gifts made two years before death and gifts to charitable establishments made six months before death are exempt from Estate or Death duty. The duty is levied according to slab system. The exemption limit is now Rs. 50,000.

TAXES ON WEALTH: The Wealth Tax Act, 1957, provides for the levy of a tax, effective from 1st April, 1957, on the net wealth of every individual, Hindu undivided family and company at the rates specified below :—

(i)	On the first Rs. 2 lakhs of net wealth	.. Nil
(ii)	On the next Rs. 10 lakhs of net wealth	.. ½%
(iii)	On the next Rs. 10 lakhs of net wealth	.. 1%
(iv)	On the balance of net wealth	.. 1½%
(i)	On the first Rs. 4 lakhs of net wealth	.. Nil
(ii)	On the next Rs. 9 lakhs of net wealth	.. ½%
(iii)	On the next Rs. 10 lakhs of net wealth	.. 1%
(iv)	On the balance of net wealth	.. 1½%
(i)	On the first Rs. 5 lakhs of net wealth	.. Nil
(ii)	On the balance of net wealth	.. ½%

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TAXES ON RAILWAY PASSENGER FARES: The Railway Passenger Fares Act, 1957, provides for the levy of a tax on railway fares paid by passengers at the following rates :—

	Description of Traffic	*Rate of Tax*
1.	Passengers travelling by railways on season tickets ..	Nil
2.	Passengers travelling by railway for distances up to 15 miles (inclusive)	Nil
3.	Passengers travelling by railway for distances from 16 miles to 30 miles (inclusive)	5% of fare.
4.	Passengers travelling by railway for distances from 31 miles to 500 miles (inclusive)	15% of fare.
5.	Passengers travelling by railway for distances over 500 miles	10%
6.	Passengers travelling on mileage coupons ..	12½% of the cost of the coupons.

EXPENDITURE TAX: The Expenditure Tax Act, 1958 provides indicated below on the taxable expenditure incurred by any individual or the levy, effective from April 1, 1958, of expenditure tax at the rates Hindu undivided family in the previous year, provided the net aggregate income of the assessee after deduction of other taxes payable on that income, exceeds Rs. 36,000. In the case of every individual and Hindu undivided family, on that portion of the taxable expenditure—

(i) which does not exceed Rs. 10,000	10%
(ii) which exceeds Rs. 10,000 but does not exceed Rs. 30,000	20%
(iii) which exceeds Rs. 20,000 but does not exceed Rs. 30,000	40%
(iv) which exceeds Rs. 30,000 but does not exceed Rs. 40,000	60%
(v) which exceeds Rs. 40,000 but does not exceed Rs. 50,000	80%
(vi) which exceeds Rs. 50,000	100%

An *ad hoc* provision of Rs. 3 crores was assumed in the budget for the year 1958-59 on account of Expenditure Tax. On the basis of the trend of actual collections during the year, the revised estimate has been fixed at Rs. 1 crore, which has also been repeated in the following year.

GIFT TAX: The Gift Tax, 1958, provides for the imposition for every financial year beginning on and from the 1st April, 1958, of a tax on gifts made during the previous year at the rates specified below :

	Rate of Gift Tax
(1) On the first Rs. 50,000 of the value of all taxable gifts	4%

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(2)	On the first Rs. 50,000 of the value of all taxable gifts	6%
(3)	On the first Rs. 50,000 of the value of all taxable gifts	8%
(4)	On the first Rs. 50,000 of the value of all taxable gifts	10%
(5)	On the next Rs. 1 lakh of the value of all taxable gifts	12%
(6)	On the next Rs. 2 lakhs of the value of all taxable gifts	15%
(7)	On the next Rs. 5 lakhs of the value of all taxable gifts	20%
(8)	On the next Rs. 10 lakhs of the value of all taxable gifts	25%
(9)	On the next Rs. 10 lakhs of the value of all taxable gifts	30%
(10)	On the next Rs. 20 lakhs of the value of all taxable gifts	35%
(11)	On the balance of the value of all taxable gifts ..	40%

An *ad hoc* provision of Rs. 2 crores was assumed in the 1958-59 Budget. On the basis of latest trends, the realisations have been estimated at Rs. 1.2 crores in the next year's budget.

CAPITAL GAINS TAX : This tax was first levied in 1946 and was abolished in 1948, but it has now been reimposed in 1956. No capital gains tax is however payable by a person (not being a company) if the capital gains during the year are less than Rs. 5,000. It is also not payable if the capital gains together with the other income of the assessee does not exceed Rs. 10,000. The tax is imposed only on realised capital gains and not on the accrued profits. Capital gains arising from the sale of agricultural land or sale of personal effects and household goods are exempted from this tax. Persons owning residential houses are not liable to this tax, if they make capital gains on the sale of such a house provided the sale is effected for the purpose of acquiring another residential house. Capital gains are taxed at the rate of income tax applicable to the total income after including therein only one-third of the capital gains.

INDIAN COMPANIES

DEPARTMENT OF COMPANY LAW ADMINISTRATION—A full-fledged Department of Company Law Administration was created in August 1955. The responsibility of the Department of Company Law Administration includes all problems connected with the structure and internal management of joint stock companies in the corporate sector and in particular with the administration of the Companies Act, 1956 which is the basic law. Other ancillary responsibilities of the Department include professions of Chartered Accountancy, Cost and Works Accountants and Company Secretaries. The profession of accountancy is governed by the Chartered Accountants Act 1949, under which Institute of Chartered Accountants has been set up in New Delhi. There are also regional bodies under the Institute functioning at important centres. With regard to the profession of Cost and Works Accountants, the Institute of Cost & Works Accountants in Calcutta was accorded government recognition in 1957.

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The bill to regulate the profession of cost accountancy was passed by Parliament in 1959. Under the new Act statutory recognition has been given to the Institute of Costs and Works Accountants of India in Calcutta.

The Department is organised into 16 Sections. There is a Research and Statistical Branch to collect up-to-date statistical data relating to various facts of Company management.

The activities of the Research and Statistics Division fall into four broad heads—(a) collection and compilation of company statistics, (b) dissemination of information on important developments in the corporate sector in India and abroad, (c) preparation of research studies on subjects relating to company management and finance, (d) preparation of statutory and other reports relating to the working of the Companies Act.

In addition to the above set-up at the Centre, the Department has also established four Regional Directorates situated at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi consisting of a Regional Director, a Company Accountant and a Company Law Solicitor in each region. The main functions of the regional offices are—

(1) to remain in close connection with the State Governments.
(2) to watch the performance of the Registrars of Companies.
(3) to watch the progress of enquiries and investigations into the affairs of the Companies by the Inspectors.
(4) to remain in touch with the important commercial and industrial developments in the States and the trends of Company managements and assist in securing the enforcement of the Company Law.
(5) to function as a liaison office between the State and the Central Government.
(6) to guide the public and particularly the smaller companies by explaining the correct implications of the Act.

There is also a *Prosecution Division* to ensure effective implementation of the Act to check the instances of defaults committed.

Advisory Committee and Honorary Adviser—There are two Advisory Committees known as *Technical Advisory Committee* and *Research Advisory Committee*. An Honorary Adviser has also been appointed to advise the Government as to the measures to be taken for the creation of better consciousness in the public and private sectors of the need for introducing scientific internal accounting methods and practices in joint stock companies as an aid to their efficient management.

COMPANY LAW ADVISORY COMMISSION—This was set up in accordance with S. 410 of the Indian Companies Act, 1956. The Advisory Commission is required to enquire and advise the Government on the following—

(1) before issue of a notification relating to termination of managing

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agency in respect of any description of industry or business under section 324 of the Act.

(2) on applications received by the Government for appointment of managing director/managing agents, increase in the remuneration of directors, managing directors or managing agents, change in the constitution of managing agents, variations in the terms of managing agency agreement, and

(3) on such other matter as may be referred to it by the Government.

ADVISORY BOARD OF COMPANY SECRETARIES—An Advisory Board has been formed for assisting the Government in standardising the basic qualifications for appointments as company secretaries and holding the qualifying examinations. The Board will consist of experienced representatives of the profession and nominees of several Chambers of Commerce.

FRAUD SQUAD—After the passing of the Companies Act 1956, the need was felt for a special police organisatoin to deal with the more serious company offences, *i.e.*, frauds, embezzlements of company funds, criminal breach of trust. A Fraud Squad was therefore constituted in July, 1959 with its headquarters at New Delhi The Squad functions as a branch of the Special Police Establishment in the Ministry of Home Affaris.

COMPANY STATISTICS—Of the 1959-60 company registrations 1,365 were private and 87 public companies. A State-wise break-up shows that the highest number—399 of new companies, was formed in West Bengal, followed by Madras where 342 new companies were registered. The number of new registrations in Bombay and Delhi was 293 and 141 respectively.

The total number of companies at work in the country as on March 31, 1960 has been estimated at 26,921 with a total paid-up capital of Rs. 1,593 crores. Of these, 7,306 are public limited companies with an aggregate paid-up capital of Rs. 712 crores and 19,615 private limited companies with a total paid-up capital of Rs. 781 crores. New company registrations have been steadily on the rise and totalled 848 in 1956-57, 961 in 1957-58 and 1,095 in 1958-59, and 1,457 in 1959-60.

Government Companies—Up to the end of November, 1959, the total number of Government Companies at work increased to 113 and their combined paid-up capital amounts to Rs. 439.57 crores.

Foreign Companies—Under the Act, a foreign company, *i.e.*, a company incorporated and registered outside India but having a branch in India has to present accounts in respect of world business, as if it were a company incorporated under Companies Act, 1956. Such companies are, however, granted exemption from some provisions of the Act. Such a company is now required to file with the Registrar in India copies of balance sheet and profit and loss account, as filed by it with the public authority in the country of its incorporation.

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STATEWISE DISTRIBUTION OF COMPANIES IN 1959

Andhra Pradesh	461	Rajasthan	440
Assam	343	Uttar Pradesh	1,283
Bihar	475	West Bengal	11,911
Bombay	5,600	Himachal Pradesh ..	9
Kerala	1,141	Delhi	1,493
Madhya Pradesh ..	376	Manipur	7
Madras	2,281	Tripura	8
Mysore	665	Andaman & Nicobar Islands	—
Orissa	191		
Punjab	795		27,479

NATIONAL INCOME

BASIC FACTS—In assessing the National Income of India, the following basic facts are to be taken into account—

(1) An undeveloped economy, the co-existence of unutilised or under-utilised manpower on the one hand and of unexploited resources on the other.

(2) A predominently agricultural country, from which half of the country's national income is derived and which absorbs nearly three-fourths of its working force.

National Income of India in real terms recorded a rise of 0.5 per cent. in 1959-60 over 1958-59 according to 'quick' estimates prepared by the Central Statistical Organisation. There was a fall of 3.9 per cent. in agriculture (properly the contribution of which accounted for 38.7 p.c. of the total national income in 1959-60 as compared to 40.5 p.c. in 1958-59. But this fall was more than offset by increase in other sectors, which taken together registered a rise of 3.4 per cent. in 1959-60 over 1958-59.

NATIONAL INCOME ESTIMATES IN INDIA—Before the formation of the National Income Committee, several attempts were made by individual politicians, economists, etc. to estimate the national income of India. Dadabhai Naoroji estimated that the per capita national income of India in 1868 was Rs. 20. In 1911 Findlay Shirras estimated it at Rs. 49. Dr. V. K. R. V. Rao's estimate in 1931-32 was Rs. 65 and in 1942-43 was Rs. 114. The Ministry of Commerce calculated it at Rs. 272 for 1947-48.

National Income Committee was appointed by the Government of India in August, 1949. The following are the estimates of the National Income Committee issued by the Cabinet Secretariat.

India's national income at 1948-49 prices was Rs. 8,650 crores in 1948-49; Rs. 8,820 crores in 1949-50 ; Rs. 8,850 crores in 1950-51 ; Rs. 9,100 crores in 1951-52 ; Rs. 9,460 crores in 1952-53 ; Rs. 10,030 crores in 1953-54 ;

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Rs. 10,280 crores in 1954-55 ; Rs. 10,480 crores in 1955-56 ; Rs. 11,000 crores in 1956-57 ; Rs. 10,890 crores in 1957-58 ; and Rs. 11,690 crores in 1958-59.

The *per capita* income at 1948-49 prices has been placed at Rs. 293.6, Rs. 277.1 and Rs. 273.6 in 1958-59, 1957-58 and 1955-56 respectively. The rise during 1958-59 over the preceding year works out at 7.3 p.c. or Rs. 800 crores in which the 'agriculture' amounts to Rs. 570 crores. The figures of the past 11 years show a rise in national income of 11.5 per cent during the first three years of the Second Plan period as against 18.4 per cent. over the First Plan period. The corresponding rise in per capita income during the two periods was 7.3 and 11.1 respectively. Expressed at current prices, the national income stood at Rs. 12,470 crores in 1958-59 and Rs. 11,400 crores in 1957-58 as against Rs. 9,980 crores in 1955-56 ; the *per capita* income at current prices being Rs. 313.2, Rs. 290.1 and Rs. 260.6 respectively for the three years.

The table below indicates the trend of national income and per capita income at 1948-49 prices during the quinquennium ending 1959-60.

Year	*National Income Rs. crores*	*Per capita income (Rupees)*
1955-56	.. 10,480	273.6
1956-57	.. 11,000	283.5
1957-58	.. 10,890	277.1
1958-59	.. 11,690	293.6
1959-60 (Provisional) ..	.. 11,750	291.3

The figures show that the net rise in national income in real terms during the first four years of the Second Plan, *i.e.*, 1956-57 to 1959-60 was of the order of 12.1 per cent.

Trends of National Income

	National income (net national output) at 1948-49 prices. (In Rs. 100 crores)	*Per capita output at 1948-49 Prices. (Rs.)*
1948-49 ..	.. 86.5	246.9
1949-50 ..	.. 88.2	248.6
1950-51 ..	.. 88.5	246.3
1951-52 ..	.. 91.0	250.1
1952-53 ..	.. 94.6	256.6
1953-54 ..	.. 100.3	268.7
1954-55 ..	.. 102.8	271.9
1955-56 ..	.. 104.8	273.6
1956-57 ..	.. 110.0	283.5
1957-58 ..	.. 108.9	277.1
1958-59 * ..	.. 116.9	293.6

* Preliminary.

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NET NATIONAL OUTPUT AT 1948-49 PRICES

(Rs. Abja, i.e., hundred crore)

	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958 59	1959 60
1. Agriculture, animal husbandry & ancillary activities (including forestry & fishing) ..	43.4	44.4	46.0	49.8	50.3	50.2	52.5	50.1	55.8	
2. Mining, manufacturing & small enterprises ..	14.8	15.2	15.8	16.5	17.0	17.6	18.4	18.6	18.7	
3. Commerce, transport & communications	16.6	17.3	17.9	18.3	19.1	19.7	20.8	21.1	22.1	
4. Other services ..	13.9	14.3	15.0	15.7	16.4	17.3	18.2	19.2	20.4	
5. Net domestic product at factor cost ..	88.7	91.2	94.7	100.3	102.8	104.8	109.9	109.0	117.0	
6. Net earned income from abroad ..	-0.2	-0.2	-0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	
7. Net national output at factor cost ..	88.5	91.0	94.6	100.3	102.8	104.8	110.0	108.9	116.9	117.5
Per capita income ..	246.3	250.1	256.6	268.7	271.9	273.6	283.5	277.1	293.6	291.3

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INDIAN OVERSEAS

INDIAN COLONISATION—India, more than two thousand years ago, was a great colonising country, sending her people far and wide over East Asia and founding colonies of a distinctly Indian character. But this stream of colonisation dried up round about the 8th century A.D. for reasons which history does not make fully clear. It may be that the Muslim invaders checked the spirit of expansion; it may be that as Hinduism absorbed Buddhism, the old missionary zeal abated and with it the urge for adventures overseas.

Indian emigration started again in the 19th century, but it was of an entirely different character. Instead of sending out traders, missionaries and conquerors, she sent out people of high culture, which stamped itself indelibly on the culture of the countries they visited. She sent out labourers of an humble order to work on the plantations of tropical and sub-tropical countries. These people and their descendants settled in their homes and have created Indian enclaves with a distinct life of their own.

The vast mass of Indian emigration has been to countries within the British Empire. The recruiting of Indian labour for plantation work began in the 19th century. It was given stimulus by the abolition of slavery throughout the British Empire, when emancipated slaves were on the whole unwilling to work for wages and labour and had to be recruited from elsewhere. India with its large agricultural population accustomed to labour for a low monetary return, offered a promising field of recruitment.

At first the recruitment was a personal venture but later the traffic was organised by importing countries. They appointed emigration agencies which supervised recruiting within India, arranged transport and organised distribution of labourers between planters in the colonies. Labour was recruited on definite contract—long term or short term. On expiry of the contract, the labourer could either renew it, return home (usually with financial assistance) or settle in the colony as a free man. This was the essence of the system of indentured labour, which aroused strong criticism in India and was finally abolished in 1916.

INDIANS OVERSEAS—Roughly, the total population of Indians abroad is nearly four million. Despite the fact that the maximum number of Indians living overseas are in Burma, the Indian population to the total population there is only 6.9 p.c., whereas in Mauritius the Indian population is proportionately the highest—63.4 p.c. Next in order come British Guiana and the Fiji Islands, each with 47 p.c. of the total population being Indian nationals. In Trinidad and Tobago, the Indian population is 35.1 p.c., in Malaya and Singapore 11 p.c., Ceylon 12.2 p.c. and Jamaica 2.1 p.c. The countries in which Indians number more than a lakh are Ceylon, Malaya and Singapore, South-Africa, Trinidad and Tobago, Mauritious, British Guiana and Fiji Islands.

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HISTORY OF EMIGRATION—The emigration of Indian labour began at the beginning of the nineteenth century, when the Indians first went to Straits Settlements in large numbers to work on the plantations. The emigration remained unregulated until the passing of the first Emigration Act in 1837, which was replaced by the Indian Emigration Act of 1922, amended in 1938 and again in 1940.

'Emigration' means departure by sea out of India of a person under an agreement to work for hire. Emigration is not lawful unless the departure is made from ports which have been notified as "Emigration Ports." Emigration to any country for unskilled work is illegal at present and no one seeking unskilled work in Ceylon, Burma, Malaya and Singapore is allowed to leave India unless exempted by Central Government. Emigration of skilled workers is permissible provided they comply with prescribed formalities.

The functions under the Emigration Act are carried out by the Government of India through the Controller-General of Emigration and Joint Secretary to the Government of India in the Ministry of External Affairs, New Delhi, with the assistance of the Protectors of Emigrants at the Emigration Ports and the Controller of Emigration of Madras who supervises the activities of the Protectors of Emigrants in the Madras State.

NATURE OF WORK—According to the latest information, Indians overseas are mostly labourers employed on tea and rubber plantations in Ceylon ; on coconut and sugarcane plantations in Fiji Islands ; on sugar and tea plantations in Mauritius ; on rice fields and in industrial establishments in Burma ; in tin, coal, gold, iron and aluminium mines and on rubber, tea, coconut, jute and cocoa plantations in Malaya and as agricultural labour in British Guiana.

THE EMIGRATION PORTS—The following ports are declared Emigration ports unler the Act with a Protector of Emigrants at every port—

(1) Bombay (Protector of Emigrants), (2) Okha (Port Officer), (3) Porbander (Port Officer), (4) Bedi (Port Officer), (5) Madras (Protector of Emigrants), (6) Negapattanam (Protector of Emigrants), (7) Dhanushkoti (Protector of Emigrants at Mandapam), (8) Tuticorin (Protector of Emigrants), (9) Gopalpur (District Officer, Ganjam), (10) Calcutta (Protector of Emigrants).

QUOTA SYSTEM—Some countries, such as Canada, U.S.A., Thailand, Philippines and Indonesia, allow Indians on Quota System, such as—

(1) Canada—Under an agreement in 1951 Canada agreed to receive 150 Indian nationals every year for permanent residence. The selection is entirely by the Government of Canada.

(2) U.S.A.—U.S.A. has fixed a quota of 100 Indian nationals for settlement there per year, of which 25 p.c. is reserved for Indians born

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or residing outside India. The selection is made by the U.S. Government.

(3) Thailand—has fixed quota of 200 Indian nationals per year. Selection is made by Thai Government.

(4) Philippines—From September 1943, 50 Indian nationals are admitted per annum under Philippines Immigration Act.

(5) Indonesia fixed a quota of 1,000 immigrants in 1952 to a group of four countries, namely, India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma.

(16) Malaya—is now divided into two administrative units—*Federation of Malaya* and *Singapore*. Indians are eligible for citizenship in the Federation of Malaya, if they fulfil the prescribed conditions. Under the new citizenship code of 1952, Federal citizenship is automatic for citizens of U.K. and colonies. Most of the Indians in Malaya are qualified or entitled to become citizens of the U.K. and colonies under the British Nationality Act of 1948. In Singapore there is no citizenship law and the British Nationality Act applies.

UNRESTRICTED MIGRATION—There are many countries where Indians are not admitted for the specific purpose of settlement ; they can enter and reside on completion of formalities on conditions prescribed under the respective immigration and other laws of those countries, such as—

Mauritius, British East African territories of Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Northern Rhodesia, Nayasaland, Belgian Congo, Ruanda-Urandi, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Aden, Bahrein, Iraq, Muscat, Kwkait ; Saudi Arabia, Seychelles, Malaya, Fiji, Japan, United Kingdom, British West Indies, British Guiana and British North Borneo.

BAN ON ENTRY—Indian immigration is either banned or is not permitted as a matter of policy into the following countries—South Africa, Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia, Australia, New Zealand, Ceylon, Nayasaland, Burma, most of the European and South American countries.

In Australia, Asians including Indians are not allowed to immigrate for permanent settltment. But Indians who are *bona fide* merchants may be admitted and allowed to remain there so long as they continue the trade. In Burma no foreigner is allowed to buy any property, nor can any property be transferred to any foreigner. As foreigners of the country Indians have no franchise. The worst form of racialism prevails in the Union of South Africa. The new worst legislation in this respect is *Group Areas Act of* 1950 which divides the entire population into three main groups—White, Native and Coloured. The Indians are included in the coloured group.

INDIANS OVERSEAS

Commonwealth Countries

Aden (1955)	15,817	Br. Guiana (1954)	2,10,000
Australia (1948)	2,500	Br. N. Borneo (1954) (1)	2,000
Br. Honduras (1946)	2,000	Brunei (1958) (1)	2,000

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Canada (1955)	3,750	Rhodesia (Southern)	4,700
Ceylon (1958)	8,29,619	Sarawak (1958)	2,000
Fiji Islands (1958)	1,69,403	Singapore (1955)	98,267
Grenada	6,000	South Africa (1951)	3,65,524
Hong Kong (1955)	2,500	St. Lucia (1954)	3,000
Jamaica (1954)	26,000	St. Vincent (1954)	2,000
Kenya (1954)	1,27,000	Tanganyika (1954)	68,000
Malaya, Fed. of (1958) (1)	7,40,436	Trinidad	2,67,000
Mauritious (1955)	3,75,918	Uganda (1954)	50,000
New Zealand (1958)	1,800	United Kingdom	—
Nayasaland (1954) (1)	6,000	Zanzibar & Pemba (1948)	15,812
Rhodesia (Northern)	3,500		

Foreign Countries

Bahrein (1954)	3,000	Muscat (1947)	1,145
Belgian Congo (1950)	1,227	Nepal (1941)	10,441
Burma (Approx.)	7,00,000	Philippines (1958)	1,675
Dutch Guiana (1955)	70,000	Portuguese E. Africa (1948)	12,600
Ethiopia (1955)	1,645	Reunion (1955)	2,500
Indo-China (1950)	2,300	Ruanda Urundi (1950)	1,963
Indonesia (1958)	30,000	Saudi Arabia (1956)	5,000
Italian Somaliland (1947)	1,000	Sudan (1956)	2,000
Kuwait (1954)	2,500	Thailand (1958)	10,000
Madagascar (1956)	14,000	U.S.A. (1955)	5,063

Number of Emigrants

	From India to		*Returning to India*	
	1957	1958	1957	1958
Burma ..	3	8	4	15
Ceylon ..	1	54	104	—
Malaya ..	83	14	1,518	2,189
Africa ..	287	354	36	23
Others ..	2,614	2,134	1,234	1,086
	2,988	2,564	2,896	3,313

(1) Including Pakistanis.

INDIAN CENSUS

1961 CENSUS—We have had a ten-yearly census regularly since 1870's and this year will be the tenth decennial census.

The guiding principle of the census is that it should be simultaneous

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throughout the country and locate every person in his place of residence. The census operation consists of two parts : the preparatory stage and the actual enumeration period. During preparatory stage, enumerators will visit every house in their respective areas and prepare the house lists. The actual enumeration period will begin in February 1961 and end in March 5, 1961. This period again, is divided into two stages : the first stage called the enumeration round which ends at sunrise on March 1, and second called the check or revisional period which ends on the evening of March 5.

New Types of Data—Apart from the normal demographic and economic data, such as age, sex, nationality, birth place, literacy, work and nature of work, etc., administrative data will be collected. Administrative data mean number of schools, hospitals, cinemas, buildings, houses and so on. This will give a correct index of the progress that has been made or has still to be made in the welfare services. Perhaps the most important data to be collected in 1961 census are the fuller details about employment and migration patterns. Migration pattern means the exodus from villages to towns.

BROAD OUTLINES OF 1951 CENSUS—The census taken in India in 1951 was the eighth regular census and first census of free India. We enumerate here the broad outlines of 1951 census—

1.	Total Population ..	356,879,394
2.	Literacy for India (1951) ..	16.6 p.c.
3.	No. of females to every 1,000 males ..	947
4.	Urban population ..	62 million or 17.3 p.c.
5.	Rural population ..	295 million or 82.7 p.c.
6.	Total No. of towns ..	3,018
7.	Total No. of villages ..	558,089
8.	P.C. of population dependent on agriculture ..	70
9.	Density of population ..	304 per sq. m.
10.	Increase over 1941 census ..	12.5 p.c.
11.	Total land area covered by 1951 census ..	12,69,640 Sq. m.
12.	Highest density, Delhi ..	3,017 per sq. m.
13.	Increase of urban population over 1941 ..	3.5 p.c.

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GROWTH OF POPULATION

	Pop. in million	*Increase or decrease in million*	*P.c. of increase or decrease*
1891	235·90	— ..	—
1901	235·50	— 0·4 ..	— 0·7
1911	249·05	13·55 ..	+ 5·8
1921	248·18	— 0·87 ..	— 0·3
1931	275·52	27·34 ..	+11·0
1941	314·77	39·25 ..	+14·3
1951	356·88	42·11 ..	+13·4

INDIA & THE WORLD

Total Population	Second highest in the world.
Land area	Seventh in the world.
P.C. of land area	India occupies 2.2 p.c. world land area.
P.C. of population	For every 13 persons in the world, two are living in India.

RURAL & URBAN POPULATION

	P.c. of rural to total population	*P.c. of urban to total population*
1921	88.6	11.4
1931	87.9	12.1
1941	86.1	13.9
1951	82.7	17.3

RELIGION

	No. in lakhs	*P.c. to total population*		*No. in lakhs*	*P.c. of total population*
Hindu ..	30.32	84.99	Zorastrian ..	1	0.03
Muslim ..	3.54	9.93	Tribal ..	17	0.47
Christian ..	82	2.30	Other Religions		
Sikh ..	62	1.74	(nontribal) ..	1	0.03
Jain ..	16	0.45	*All Religions* ..	35.67	100.00
Buddhist ..	2	0.06			

SEX RATIO

In India, as a whole the total number of males is 183 million and females 174 million.

	No. of females per 1000 males		*No. of females per 1000 males*
1921	956	1941	946
1931	951	1951	947

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	Per 1000 males		Per 1000 males
Greater Calcutta ..	602	Ahmedabad ..	764
Greater Bombay ..	596	Bangalore	883
Madras	921	Kanpur	699
Delhi	750	Poona	833
Hyderabad	989	Lucknow	783

ESTIMATED MID-YEAR POPULATION

	Crores		Crores
1952	36.75	1956	38.74
1953	37.23	1957	39.24
1954	37.71	1958	39.75
1955	38.24	1959	40.28

BIRTH RATES AND DEATH RATES

(*per* 1,000)

	Birth rate	*Death rate*	*Infant mortality*		*Birth rate*	*Death rate*	*Infant mortality*
1938 ..	34	24	167	1948 ..	25·2	17·0	130
1939 ..	34	24	156	1949 ..	26·4	15·8	123
1940 ..	33	22	160	1950 ..	24·7	16·1	127
1941 ..	32·1	21·9	158	1951 ..	24·9	14·4	123
1942 ..	29·5	21·4	163	1952 ..	25·4	13·8	116
1943 ..	26·1	23·9	165	1953 ..	24·8	13·0	118
1944 ..	25·8	24·5	169	1954 ..	24·4	12·5	109
1945 ..	20·0	22·1	151	1955 ..	27·0	11·7	102
1946 ..	28·9	18·7	136	1956 ..	21·6	9·8	98
1947 ..	26·4	19·7	146	1957 ..	21·5	11·0	—

POPULATION OF SPECIAL GROUPS

Anglo-Indians ..	1,11,637	Scheduled Castes ..	5,13,43,898
		Scheduled Tribes ..	1,91,16,498

POPULATION ACCORDING TO LANGUAGES

	No. in lakhs	*P.c. to total*		*No. in lakhs*	*P.c. to total*
*Hindi, Urdu, Hindustani & Punjabi ..	1,499	46·3	Assamese ..	50	1·5
Telugu	330	10·2	Kashmiri ..	0·05	..
Marathi ..	270	8·3	Sanskrit ..	0·01	..
Tamil	265	8·2	*Hindi (excluding Punjab, Delhi & Himachal		
Bengali ..	251	7·8	Pradesh)	906	lakhs
Gujarati ..	163	5·0	Urdu	136	„
Kannada ..	145	4·5	Hindustani	82	„
Malayalam ..	134	4·1	Punjabi	8	„
Oriya	132	4·1			

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AREA & POPULATION

States	Area according to the Surveyor General (as on 31-3-1959) Sq. Kilometre	Population according to 1951 census (1)
Andhra Pradesh	274,674	31,260,133
Assam (a)	219,888	9,043,707
Bihar	174,043	38,783,778
Gujarat	186,837*	16,262,135
Jammu & Kashmir ..	222,802	4,410,000
Kerala	38,858	13,549,118
Madhya Pradesh	443,434	26,071,637
Madras	129,842	29,974,936
Maharashtra	306,992*	32,003,086
Mysore	191,976	19,401,193
Orissa	155,819	14,645,946
Punjab	121,947	16,134,890
Rajasthan	342,268	15,970,774
Uttar Pradesh	293,840	63,215,742
West Bengal	87,873	26,302,386
Centrally Administered Territories—		
Amindivi, Laccadive and Minicoy Islands	28	21,035
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	8,327	30,971
Delhi	1,484	1,744,072
Himachal Pradesh ..	28,179	1,109,466
Manipur	22,347	577,635
Tripura	10,453	639,029
TOTAL ..	3,262871(a)	361,151,669

(1) No Census was conducted during 1951 in Jammu and Kashmir. Registrar General's estimate of population as on 1-3-51 was 4·41 millions. The area of Sikkim is 7,107 sq. kilometre and the population according to the 1951 Census was 137,725.

(a) Includes 83,628 square kilometre of Tribal Areas of Assam where no census was taken in 1951. A local estimate of population placed it at 561 thousand persons.

* Provisional.

Sources : 1. Office of the Registrar General, India, Ministry of Home Affairs.

2. Office of the Survey or General, India.

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POPULATION OF CITIES

Punjab

Amritsar ..	325,747
Jullundur ..	168,816
Ludhiana ..	153,795

Uttar Pradesh

Kanpur ..	705,383
Lucknow ..	496,861
Agra ..	375,665
Banaras ..	355,777
Allahabad ..	332,295
Meerut ..	233,183
Bareily ..	208,083
Moradabad ..	161,854
Saharanpur ..	148,435
Dehra Dun ..	144,216
Aligarh ..	141,618
Rampur ..	134,277
Gorakhpur ..	132,436
Jhansi ..	127,365
Mathura ..	105,773
Shahjahanpur ..	104,835

West Bengal

Calcutta (Greater)	45,78,071
Howrah ..	433,630
Tollyganj ..	149,817
Bhatpara ..	134,916
Kharagpur ..	129,636
Garden Reach ..	109,160
Behala ..	104,055

Bombay

Bombay (Greater)	28,39,720
Poona ..	588,545
Nagpur ..	449,099

Gujarat

Ahmedabad ..	793,813
Sholapur ..	277,087
Surat ..	223,182
Baroda ..	211,409
Bhavnagar ..	137,951
Kolhapur ..	136,835
Rajkot ..	132,069
Amravati ..	124,064
Jamnagar ..	104,419

Andhra

Hyderabad ..	10,85,722
Vijayawada ..	161,198
Warangal ..	133,130
Guntur ..	125,255
Visakhapatnam ..	108,042
Rajamundry ..	105,276

Mysore

Bangalore ..	778,977
Mysore ..	244,323
Kolar Gold fields ..	159,084
Hubli ..	129,609
Mangalore ..	117,083

Rajasthan

Jaipur ..	291,130
Ajmer ..	196,633
Jodhpur ..	180,771
Bikaner ..	117,113

Kerala

Trivandrum ..	186,931
Alleppey ..	116,278
Kozhikode ..	158,724

Delhi

Delhi ..	13,84,211

Bihar

Patna ..	283,479
Jamshedpur ..	218,162
Gaya ..	133,700
Bhagalpur ..	114,530
Ranchi ..	106,849

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Madhya Pradesh			Tiruchirapalli	..	218,921
Indore	..	310,859	Salem	..	202,335
Jabalpur	..	256,998	Coimbatore	..	197,755
Gwalior	..	241,577	Tirunelveli	..	113,486
Ujjain	..	129,817	Vellore	..	106,024
Bhopal	..	102,633	Tanjore	..	100,680
Madras			*Orissa*		
Madras	..	14,16,056	Cuttack	..	102,505
Madurai	..	361,781			

LITERACY IN INDIA

Meaning of 'Literacy'—A literate person may be defined as one who can read a simple letter and write a reply.

Progress of Literacy in India—In 1951, it was estimated by the census that literacy in India was 16.6 per cent. In 1955 the National Sample Survey estimated it at 17.5 per cent. which means an increase of one per cent. in five years.

According to a limited survey conducted in 1959 to pre-test the questionnaire prepared for the 1961 census, the percentage of literacy in India has increased from 16.6 in 1951 to 40.7 in 1959. The Survey showed an almost four-fold increase in female literacy from 7.9 per cent of population in 1951 to 28.8 per cent. Male literacy had also gained, but comparatively less, from 24.9 per cent to 51.7 per cent. But how far reliance on the findings of this survey can be placed, is a doubtful problem.

LITERACY IN INDIA, 1951

	males	*females*	*total*		*males*	*females*	*total*
Andhra	22·2	8·6	15·1	Orissa	27·3	4·3	15·8
Assam	27·1	7·0	18·1	Punjab	22·0	9·5	16·1
Bihar	20·6	3·8	12·2	U. P.	17·4	3·4	10·8
Bombay	35·5	12·7	24·6	West Bengal	34·7	12·8	24·6
M. P.	21·9	5·9	13·5				
Madras	32·6	11·0	21·8		25·4	8·1	16·7

	males	*females*	*total*		*males*	*females*	*total*
Hyderabad	15·1	3·0	9·2	Kutch	24·4	10·2	17·1
M. B.	17·4	3·7	10·8	Manipur	20·8	2·4	11·4
Mysore	29·5	9·8	19·9	Tripura	22·3	8·0	15·5
PEPSU	17·7	5·2	8·4	Vindhya Pradesh	10·9	1·1	6·1
Rajasthan	13·7	2·6	8·4				
Saurashtra	26·3	10·5	18·5		21·1	8·5	15·1
Travancore-Cochin	55·2	27·7	46·4				

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	males	*females*	*total*
Ajmer	29·1	10·3	20·1
Bhopal	12·3	3·9	8·2
Coorg	34·0	19·0	27·2
Delhi	43·0	82·3	38·4
Himachal Pradesh	7·7	12·6	2·4
Andaman & Nicobar Il's.	34·2	12·3	25·8
Sikkim	12·8	1·3	7·3
	17·3	3·0	10·7
All India	24·9	7·9	16·6

WORLD POLITICS IN A NUTSHELL

TREATIES & PACTS

Organisation of American States (OAS) and the Rio Treaty—In September, 1947 eighteen Latin American countries (Nicaragua and Equador excluded) and the United States signed the Rio Treaty under which all signatories agreed to protect against aggression every State in the Western Hemisphere. In April, 1948, all the American Nations (twenty-one—Canada not included) joined in the Organisation of American States (OAS) to implement the Rio Treaty and form a collective security system.

North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)—A treaty signed in 1949, under which the members agree to regard an attack on one as an attack on all, and to aid the one attacked.

Members

United States	Netherlands	Italy
Canada	Denmark	Portugal
Iceland	West Germany	France
Norway	Belgium	Greece
Great Britain	Luxemburg	Turkey

Anzus Treaty—A treaty signed in September 1951, under which members acknowledge that an attack in the Pacific against any will involve all, and agree to "act to meet the common danger."

Members

United States	New Zealand	Australia

Western European Integration—Integration created by six European nations in March 1957 of *Euromarket* to stimulate trade by eliminating customs barriers, creating common tariffs, cutting exchange restrictions, etc. and of *Euratom*, an atomic energy pool.

Members

France	West Germany	Netherlands
Italy	Belgium	Luxemburg

South-East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO)—was signed at Manila in September, 1954, covering the "general area of South-east Asia" and

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the Western Pacific. In case of aggression, its members are to "consult immediately in order to agree to measures which should be taken for common defence."

Members

United States	Australia	Pakistan
Great Britain	Thailand	Philippines
New Zealand	France	

Central Treaty Organisation (*CENTO*)—Bagdad Pact collapsed after the withdrawal of Iraq and its name was changed to Central Treaty Organisation. Its purpose continues to be that of providing a defence shield against Soviet penetration.

Members

Turkey	Pakistan
Iran	United States
Great Britain	

Warsaw Pact—Counterpart of NATO. The main provision of the pact is, an attack on one shall be regarded as an attack on all. There is a unified military control.

Members

Albania	East Germany	Rumania
Bulgaria	Hungary	U.S.S.R.
Czechoslovakia	Poland	

COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS

The Commonwealth of Nations, also frequently called the *British* Commonwealth, is an association of ten nations, all former colonies, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and North Ireland. The ten associated nations are :—

Canada	Union of South Africa	Pakistan
New Zealand	Malaya	Ghana
Australia	Ceylon	United Kingdom
	India	

NEUTRAL POWERS IN THE U.N.

The most important event in the U.N. in 1959 is the emergence of Neutrals as a powerful group. The Neutrals form a U.N. majority of the Centre. The following nations may be grouped as the Neutrals—

Togo	India	* Norway	Guinea	Tunesia
Gabon	Thailand	Sweden	Yugoslavia	* Thailand
Congo	Burma	Afganistan	United Arab Republic	
	Nepal	Ghana	Indonesia	

* Thailand is a SEATO member and Norway a NATO member, but they have always refused to allow foreign forces and military equipment on their territories.

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The Main Aims of the Neutrals—(1) They see the U.N. as the bulwork of their independence, (2) they fear nuclear doom from the angry opposition of East and West, (3) they do not want to be pushed around by the great powers, (4) they abstain on issues tied closely to the cold war and see the risk of associating themselves with big power rivalries.

Neutralism has won many adherents in the world. It contributes positively to the amelioration of the cold war tensions.

INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

1. **DISARMAMENT**—The Ten-Power Disarmament Conference, consisting of representatives of Bulgaria, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Italy, Poland, Rumania, the United Kingdom, the United States and the U.S.S.R., opened in Geneva on 15th March, 1960. There were two plans for disarmament—the Western Plan and the Soviet Plan. The text of the *Western Plan* is as follows :

(*a*) The ultimate goal is a secure, free and peaceful world in which there shall be general disarmament under effective international control and agreed procedures for the settlement of disputes in accordance with the principles of the United Nations Charter.

(*b*) The task of the 10-nation disarmament conference should be to work out measures leading toward general disarmament, which can only be attained by balanced, phased and safeguarded agreements.

(*c*) All measures of disarmament must be observed and verified by an appropriate international organisation.

I

The following measures are proposed for immediate action : (*a*) The establishment of an International Disarmament Organisation by progressive steps.

(*b*) Prior notification to the International Disarmament Organisation of proposed launchings of space vehicles and the establishment of co-operative arrangements for communicating to the International Disarmament Organisation data obtained from available tracking facilities.

(*c*) The collection of information on present force levels (active uniformed military man-power) and on armaments pertaining to land, sea and air forces possessed by the various Powers. The collection of information would be based mainly on declarations to States according to predetermined and mutually agreed criteria.

(*d*) The co-ordinated reduction or limitation of force levels and conventional armaments upon the establishments of agreed arrangements and procedures for initial and continuing verification by the International Disarmament Organisation as follows :

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1. Initial force level ceilings to be : 2,500,000 for the Soviet Union, 2,500,000 for the United States, and agreed appropriate force levels for certain other States.
3. Each State, party to the agreement, shall place in storage depots, within its own territories and under the supervision of the International Disarmament Organisation agreed types and quantities of conventional armaments to be set forth in lists annexed to the agreement and bearing a relationship to the agreed to force levels.

(*e*) The submission by the various States to the IDO of data relating to the operation of their financial system as it affects military expenditure, the amount of their military expenditures, and the percentage of their gross national product earmarked for military expenditure.

(*f*) Joint studies will be undertaken immediately on the following subjects :

1. Measures to assure compliance with an agreement that no nation shall place into orbit or station in outer space weapons of mass destruction, including provision for on-site inspection.
2. Measures to assure compliance with an agreement on prior notification of missile launchings, according to predetermined and mutually agreed criteria, and on declarations to the IDO of locations of launching sites, and places of manufacture, of such missiles.
3. Measures to assure compliance with an agreement to discontinue the manufacture of fissionable materials for weapon purposes.
4. Arrangements required to carry out an agreement to transfer, under international supervision and control, fissionable material from past production to non-weapon uses, including stock-piling.
5. Measures to give participating States greater protection against surprise attack with effective verification procedure including aerial inspection, ground observers at agreed points, mobile ground teams, overlapping radar, notification of aircraft flights, and appropriate communication facilities and arrangements.
6. Measures to verify budgetary information submitted by the various States to the International Disarmament Organisation.
7. Means of preventing aggression and preserving world peace and security, as national armaments are reduced, by an international organisation, to be an organ of, or linked to, the United Nations.
8. Timing and manner of extending a disarmament agreement so as to include other States having significant military capabilities, with a view to the holding of a disarmament conference.

II

The following measures will be undertaken as rapidly as possible upon successful completion of relevant preparatory studies outlined in I :

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(*a*) The prohibition against placing into orbit or stationing in outer space vehicles capable of mass destruction to be effective immediately after the installation and effective operation of an agreed control system to verify this measure.

(*b*) Prior notification to the International Disarmament Organisation of proposed launchings of missiles according to predetermined and mutually agreed criteria, and declarations of locations of launching sites, and places of manufacture of such missiles, with agreed verification including on-site inspection of launching sites of such missiles.

(*c*) The cessation of production of fissionable materials for weapons purposes immediately after the installation and effective operation of an agreed control system to verify this measure, conditional upon satisfactory progress in the field of conventional disarmament.

(*d*) Agreed quantities of fissionable material from past production to be transferred under international supervision and control to non-weapons users, including stock-piling, immediately upon the installation and effective operation of an agreed control system to verify the cessation of production of fissionable materials for weapons purposes.

(*e*) Establishment of appropriate measures to give participating States greater protection against surprise attack, including aerial inspection, ground observers at agreed points, mobile ground teams, overlapping radar, notification of aircraft flights, and appropriate communications.

(*f*) A disarmament conference with other States having significant military capabilities, called to consider their accession to the disarmament agreements including their acceptance of appropriate reductions or limitations of their respective force levels and their armaments.

(*g*) Force level ceilings for all militarily significant States and appropriate inspection and verification measures to go into effect simultaneously with the establishment of force level ceilings of 2,100,000 for the U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. At the same time, each of the States participating shall agree to place in storage depots agreed types and quantities of armaments in agreed relation to the force level ceilings.

(*h*) The establishment of measures to verify budgetary information.

(*i*) Further progressive development of the International Disarmament Organisation.

(*j*) Initial establishment of the international organisation to preserve world peace.

SOVIET STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES : The ten-Power disarmament conference and the three-power conference on nuclear weapons tests were held in Geneva in March 1960. Both conferences were adjourned in anticipation of the proposed meeting of the Heads of Government which failed to take place. The ten-power conference was adjourned on 29th April and was resumed on 7th June ; the Soviet block delegations withdrew from the conference on 27th June.

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On 8th April the Soviet block presented the following basic principles of general and complete disarmament at the conference :

1. General and complete disarmament includes disbandment of all armed forces, liquidation of all armaments, cessation of all kinds of military production, liquidation of all alien bases on foreign territories, withdrawal from these territories and disbandment of foreign troops, prohibition of nuclear, chemical, bacteriological and missile weapons, cessation of their production and destruction of their stockpiles, abolition of organs and institutions designed for organising miltary activities in states (general staffs, war ministries and their local organs), prohibition of military training, liquidation of military training establishments and cessation of appropriation of funds for military purposes.

2. General and complete disarmament shall be carried out in an agreed sequence by stages and be completed within a strictly defined time limit—four years.

3. All measures envisaged by the programme of general and complete disarmament shall be implemented under international control of scope corresponding to the nature and scope of the disarmament measures implemented at each stage. For the organisation of control and inspection over disarmament, an international control organ shall be set up with the participation of all states and shall operate in virtue of a special provision constituting an integral part of the treaty on disarmament.

4. After the implementation of the programme of general and complete disarmament, states shall retain at their disposal only strictly limited contingents of police (militia) agreed for each country, equipped with small firearms and designed exclusively for the maintenance of internal order and the protection of the personal security of the citizens.

5. Implementation by states of the programme of general and complete disarmament may not be errupted or made dependent on the fulfilment of any conditions not stipulated in the treaty.

If a state attempts to circumvent or violate the treaty on general and complete disarmament, the question of such a violation shall be submitted for immediate consideration by the Security Council and the United Nations General Assembly for the institution of measures against the violator, in accordance with the provisions of the United Nations Charter.

The Governments of the states participating in the ten-nation committee on disarmament express their confidence that the implementation of general and complete disarmament in accordance with the outlined principles will for ever remove the threat of war and ensure to mankind durable peace in the lifetime of the present generation.

As an act of goodwill for the purposes of creating appropriate conditions for the early conclusion of a treaty on general and complete disarmament, those states participating in the committee that possess nuclear weapon solemnly declare that they will not be the first to use such weapons."

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WESTERN STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES : On 26th April, 1960, the Western delegation tabled a statement of principles constituting counter proposals to the Soviet proposal of 8th April. The statement stated "the disarmament process and any agreement finally reached must fulfil the following conditions :

(a) Disarmament must be carried out by stages, each stage to be completed as rapidly as possible, although no fixed time-table can be laid down in advance for the process as a whole.

(b) Nuclear and conventional measures must be balanced so that no country or group of countries will obtain, at any stage, a significant military advantage, and so that equal security for all will be maintained and thus international confidence progressively increased.

(c) Disarmament measures must be effectively controlled throughout by an international disarmament organiastion within the framework of the United Nations, to ensure that compliance with these measures is verified from their entry into force, and that there is no evasion throughout the disarmament process and thereafter.

(d) Disarmament measures must be negotiated progressively according to the possibility of their early implementation and effective control."

An impasse had arisen at the conference as a result of the Soviet block's refusal to discuss specific disarmament measures in detail until the conference had discussed the Soviet principles, or the Western delegations had put forward principles of their own. The conference adjourned on 29th April after failing to agree on the text of a joint communique. Instead a short statement was issued saying that the conference would next meet on 7th June.

NEW SOVIET DISARMAMENT PROPOSALS : At a press conference held in the Kremlin on 3rd June, 1960, Mr. Krushchev released the text of the new Soviet disarmament proposals which had been sent to all foreign governments. Mr. Krushchev said the proposals had been drafted by the Soviet Government for discussion at the Paris Meeting of Heads of Government, but that this had been made impossible by the provocative actions of the United States Administration.

Preambular paragraphs to the basic provisions of the Soviet plan covered, among other things, the setting up of a control organisation within the framework of the United Nations. After the signing of a treaty, a preparatory commission would be established, which would implement the practical measures for the setting up of the organisation. The control organisation, when set up, would consist of all states party to the treaty. Conferences of their representatives meeting periodically would elect a control council, consisting of permanent and non-permanent members, drawn from communist countries, countries participating in Western political and military alliances, and neutral countries. Barring cases specifically agreed upon, substantive decisions would be decided in the control council

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by a two-thirds majority and procedural question by a simple majority vote. The council would give practical guidance to the control system, issue instructions and analyse reports made to it. States would submit reports on their armed forces and armaments to the council. The council would place its internationally-recruited personnel (recruited on the basis of just geographical distribution) on the territories of States party to the treaty the moment the implementation of disarmament measures begin. Parties to the treaty would ensure inspectors and inspection teams timely and unrestricted access to any point where verification or on-the-spot inspection is to be carried out.

MAIN PROVISIONS OF THE SOVIET PLAN :—The main provisions of the Soviet plan are summarised below :

The First Stage :

(*a*) Destruction of all means of delivery of nuclear weapons (including submarines) and the cessation of their manufacture.

(*b*) Withdrawal of all foreign troops and abolition of all foreign bases.

(*c*) From the beginning of the first stage until the final destruction of all means of delivering nuclear weapons, the putting into orbit or the placing in outer space of special devices, the crossing by naval vessels of the limits of their territorial waters and flights beyond their national territory by military aircraft, capable of carrying weapons of mass destruction, will be prohibited.

(*d*) The launching of rockets will be carried out solely for the peaceful purposes in accordance with pre-determined and agreed criteria and shall be accompanied by agreed measures of verification, including inspection on the launching sites of such rockets.

(*e*) Nuclear weapons will not be transferred to States not manufacturing them and such States will undertake not to manufacture nuclear weapons.

(*f*) Control measures will include : On-the-spot control of the destruction of means of delivering nuclear weapons ; international supervision of the abolition of foreign military bases ; and unrestricted inspection of former places of manufacture of means of delivery.

(*g*) The undertaking of joint studies of measures for discontinuing the production of other weapons of mass destruction, and for the destruction of stockpiles.

(*h*) The first stage must be accomplished within one year to eighteen months.

The Second Stage :

(*a*) Complete prohibition of nuclear, chemical, bacteriological and other weapons of mass destruction, cessation of their manufacture and destruction of stockpiles of these weapons.

(*b*) Reduction of the armed forces of the U.S.A. and the Soviet

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Union to 1,700,000 men. Equipment released as a result to be destroyed or used for peaceful purposes.

(*c*) Representatives of the control organisation shall carry out on-the-spot inspection of the destruction of the weapons of mass destruction ; shall be entitled to inspect all enterprises concerned with the extraction, production or use of atomic materials and atomic energy ; and shall supervise the disbandment of troops and the destruction of armaments following from the reduction of armed forces.

(*d*) Joint studies would be undertaken to facilitate general and complete disarmament and to introduce measures to safeguard peace when this has been achieved.

The Third Stage :

(*a*) The armed forces of all States shall be eliminated leaving only limited contingents of police (militia) for the preservation of internal order and security.

(*b*) Remaining conventional armaments will be destroyed, their production terminated and military staffs, organisations and training abolished.

(*c*) The control organisation will supervise the carrying out of (*a*) and (*b*) and may, when necessary, institute a system of aerial observation and photography.

(*d*) The control organisation will remain in existence to carry out constant supervision of the implementation of the treaty obligations, and shall have the right to send mobile inspection teams to any point or any establishment on the territories of States.

(*e*) States will undertake to place, when necessary, at the disposal of the Security Council, formations out of the contingents of the police (militia) remaining at their disposal for the preservation of peace and security.

(*f*) Gradually the funds released as a result of disarmament shall be partly used for economic assistance to underdeveloped countries.

When the 10-Power conference reassembled on 7th June 1960, Mr. Zorin, the head of the Soviet delegation, tabled the new Soviet proposals as a conference document.

On 16th June, the head of the United Kingdom delegation said that the elimination of foreign bases in the first stage of the disarmament plan would give the Soviet Union large strategic and military advantage over countries of the NATO alliances. He stressed that the withdrawal of the United States, United Kingdom and Canadian forces from the continent of Western Europe would in no way be compensated for by the withdrawal of Soviet forces from the territories of Warsaw Pact countries, because they could return to these territories much more easily than Western forces could return to territories they were under obligation to protect.

NEW U.S. PROPOSALS—On 27th June the USA tabled new

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proposals for disarmament at the 10-Power conference. The main points of these new proposals are as follows :

The Treaty : (*a*) A treaty embodying the first stage of the programme to be concluded in the first instance by the countries represented in the ten-nation disarmament committee.

(*b*) A draft treaty, prepared by the ten-nation committee covering the second and third stages of the programme to be submitted to a world disarmament conference.

(*c*) At the world disarmament conference other states to accede to the first stage treaty and the full comprehensive three-stage treaty to be concluded by all countries.

Organs to ensure the observation of the Treaty : (*a*) An international disarmament control organisation ; (*b*) As executive body of the organisation, a control commission with a Director-General ; (*c*) An international peace force to provide security for all countries during the latest stages of disarmament and after its completion.

The control organisation is to be established in Stage I, and the international peace force in Stage II. Both are to be within the framework of the United Nations.

The following are the most important actual disarmament measures to be carried out progressively in the three stages :

(A) *Conventional Disarmament :* (*i*) Initial force levels of 2·5 million for the United States and the Soviet Union, to be reduced to 2·1 million after the accession to the first stage treaty of other militarily significant States. (In the Western disarmament plan levels 2·1 million were not envisaged until Stage II.) Appropriate force levels for other States to be agreed upon.

(*ii*) Agreed types of armaments to be placed in storage depots, pending destruction or conversion to peaceful uses.

(B) *Nuclear Disarmament :* (*i*) Production of fissionable material for weapons purposes to be stopped, and agreed quantities of such material to be transferred to non-weapons uses—the "cut-off", that is, ending the production of atomic weapons—to be conditional on satisfactory progress, in conventional disarmament. (In the Western disarmament plan this measure was proposed for Stage II).

(*ii*) As regards the means of delivery for nuclear weapons, the proposed measures include :

(*a*) Prohibition of placing into orbit or stationing into outer space, vehicles carrying weapons capable of mass destruction.

(*b*) Notification of all proposed launchings of space vehicles and missiles ; on-site inspection of agreed operational air-bases, missile launching pads, submarine and naval bases.

(C) *Other Measures :* To give greater protection against surprise

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attack a zone of aerial and ground inspection in agreed areas, including the United States and the U.S.S.R., to be established.

The Second Stage :

(A) *Conventional Disarmament :* (*i*) Further reduction of United States and Soviet Union force levels to 1.7 million, and proposed levels for other states to be agreed upon.

(*ii*) Further reduction of armaments and their destruction.

(B) *Nuclear Disarmament :* (*i*) Nuclear arms (as well as biological, chemical and other weapons of mass destruction) to be reduced to agreed levels and the resulting excess destroyed or converted to peaceful purposes.

(*ii*) *Delivery Systems :* The reduction of agreed categories of missiles, aircraft, surface ships, submarines and artillery designed to deliver nuclear and other weapons of mass destruction to agreed levels and the excess destroyed or converted to peaceful purposes.

The Third Stage :

Forces and military establishment of all states to be finally reduced to levels required for the purpose of maintaining internal order and providing contingents of forces to the international peace force. All remaining armaments to be destroyed or converted to peaceful uses. No manufacture of any armaments, except for agreed types and quantities for use by the international peace force and agreed remaining national contingents.

These proposals are still under the consideration of the Great Powers and nothing material has so far been reached.

II. JAPANESE-U.S. SECURITY TREATY

On 19th January 1960, a new treaty of mutual co-operation and security between Japan and the U.S.A. was signed. The new treaty replaces one signed on the same day (8th September, 1951) as the Japanese Peace Treaty. The old Treaty gave the United States the right to "dispose United States land, air and sea forces in and about Japan" and provided that such forces may be utilised for international peace and security in the Far East and to the security of Japan against armed attack from without....."

Main Provisions of Treaty : Article I of the new Treaty expresses support of the principles of the United Nations. Article II provides for general and economic collaboration, Article III for the development in each country, "subject to their constitutional provisions, of their capacities to resist armed attack." Article IV provides for consultation 'whenever the security of Japan or international peace and security in the Far East is threatened." Under Article V, each party recognises that an armed attack against either party in the territories under the administration of Japan would be dangerous to its own peace and safety and declares that it would act to meet the common danger in accordance with its consti-

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tutional provisions and processes. It is provided in Article VI that, "For the purposes of contributing to the security of Japan and the maintenance of international peace and security in the Far East, the United States of America is granted the use by its land, air and naval forces of facilities and areas in Japan." Articles VIII and IX provide that the treaty shall enter into force with ratification, when the old treaty will expire. Article X provides that the treaty "shall remain in force until, in the opinion of the Governments of the United States of America and Japan, there shall have come into force such United Nations Arrangements as will satisfactorily provide for the maintenance of international peace and security in the Japan area." However, after the treaty has been in force for ten years, either party may give notice to the other party of its intention to terminate the treaty, in which case the treaty shall terminate one year after such notice has been given.

The instruments of ratification of the new Treaty were exchanged in Tokyo on 23rd June. In Japan there were severe criticism and objection against this treaty. President Eisenhower was to have visited Japan on the occasion of ratification of the treaty. But the public demonstration against the Kishi Government was so severe that the President had to cancel his Japanese tour.

Recently there took place a general election in Japan. The Liberal Democrat Party of Premier Kayato Ikeda obtained majority. The Liberal Democrat Party is a conservative party and it supported the U.S.-Japan Security Pact.

III. I.B.R.D. LOAN TO SUEZ CANAL AUTHORITY

It was announced recently that the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, in participation with nine institutional investors, had made a loan equivalent to $56.5 million to the Suez Canal Authority, a public organiastion which is responsible for management, operation and maintenance of the canal.

The Authority is engaged in a £37.6 million ($107.9 million) programme of improvements to the canal, which is being widened and deepened to accommodate ships with a draft of up to 37 feet (about 46,000 deadweight tons); the present maximum is 35 feet (about 36,000 deadweight tons). Other works include the deepening of the channel and harbour at Port Said, the construction there of berths for cargo and passenger ships, basins and sheds for lighterage traffic, and of roads and bridges both at Port Said and at Port Tewfik at the southern end of the canal. These improvements will open the canal to the larger tankers now coming into service, and will enable it to serve more efficiently the growing volume of traffic, now amounting to about 18,000 ships and 140 million tons of cargo a year.

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The remaining costs are being met by the Suez Canal Authority from its own resources. The loan is for a term of fifteen years and bears interest at 6 per cent. per annum, including the 1 per cent. commission which is allocated to the IBRD's special reserve. Under the loan agreement, the Suez Canal Authority will keep funds in reserve from its current revenues in order to provide the service for the loan. The loan is guaranteed by the United Arab Republic. Participation to the extent of more than $5 million, without the IBRD's guarantee, has been arranged with the several private banks :

IV. EUROPEAN MONETARY AGREEMENT

The Council of the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) announced on December 21, 1959, that the multilateral settlements system provided for under the European Monetary Agreement (EMA) would be continued from January 1, 1960, for an indefinite peirod, subject to the general review of the EMA at the end of its third year (1961).

The 18 member countries of the OEEC are all contracting parties to the EMA, which came into force on 27th December, 1958, when external convertibility for most European currencies was restored. The EMA established a European fund and a multilateral settlements system. The European fund is designed to assist OEEC countries to withstand temporary difficulties in their over-all balance of payments by granting them the non-automatic credits for periods of up to two years. The multilateral settlements system provides a framework for monetary co-operation between its members, the two essential features of which are, first, that each member country undertakes to maintain the fluctuations in the rate for its currency on the exchange markets within moderate and stable margins declared by it to the OEEC and, second, that all claims in the currency of any member country are covered by an exchange guarantee.

European Fund : The capital of the European fund, totalling 607.5 million units of account (equivalent to the U.S. dollars) consists, first, of an amount of 271.5 million units of account (un/a) transferred from the European Payments Union (and contributed to the Union by the United States Government). The remaining 336 million un/a consists of contributions from OEEC countries, the amounts of which were fixed in 1955 in relation to the turnover in previous years of each country's international payments and receipts (for trade and invisibles). In order to correct the major inconsistencies in the pattern of these contributions, it has been decided to make adjustments, in the case of four countries, in the direction of the changes in their relative economic situation since 1955. The contributions of France and Germany are each increased by 8 million un/a to 50 million un/a. The contribution of Italy is increased by 10 million un/a to 25 million un/a. The United Kingdom's contribution is reduced by 26 million un/a to 60.575 million un/a.

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The European Fund grants credits in gold to help member countries to overcome balance of payments difficulties. The credit is subject to agreements reached between the country concerned and the Organisation on the measures required to restore the internal and external equilibrium of its economy. Through the Multilateral Settlements System each member country undertakes to maintain the market rates for its currency within moderate and stable limits, to give an exchange guarantee to other countries on official holdings of its currency, and to carry out multilateral settlements of any balances reported. In normal times, hardly any settlements are made through the system ; it is designed to establish a climate of confidence in which the bulk of all international payments is carried out through the exchange markets and to be of special benefit during periods of difficulty. In fact, 1959 was a period of strength and stability for the currencies of member countries. The foreign exchange markets absorbed the increasing flow of capital, additional to the high level of current transactions, without big fluctuations in the market rates for the major European currencies, which have nearly always been above par with the dollar.

V. INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION

An international financing agency, the International Development Association, a global lending body with initial resources equivalent to $ 1,000 million, has started operations with November 8, 1960. The IDA will provide easier credits than its sponsor, the World Bank, offers to developing low-income countries. Many of these countries need wealth-producing investments beyond their means to pay for in "hard" freely convertible currency. These countries can now look to IDA for the long-term credits repayable totally in their own "soft" non-convertible currencies. IDA is an affiliate of the World Bank. IDA and the World Bank will have the same management, with Bank President Eugene Black serving as ex-officio President of IDA and Chairman of its executive directors. Officers and staff of the Bank have been appointed to serve concurrently as officers and staff of IDA.

Any member of the World Bank is eligible for membership in IDA. Thus far, 22 countries including India, have accepted membership. Subscriptions of the 22 present members represent the equivalent of $ 726.72 million. If all members of the World Bank join the IDA, its initial subscriptions would total the equivalent of $ 1,000 million, of which more than three-quarters would be available on a fully convertible basis.

VI. WESTERN RELATIONS WITH THE U.S.S.R.

A Soviet announcement of the shooting down near Sverdlovsk of an unarmed United States civilian aircraft engaged in a reconnaissance flight

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over Soviet territory was made the occasion of a crisis in the relations between the Western Powers and the U.S.S.R. in May, 1960. Mr. Krushchev, addressing the Supreme Soviet on 5th May, informed them that on 1st May an American aircraft had crossed the Soviet frontiers and had been shot down. Mr. Krushchev denounced the aggressive activities which had taken place in recent weeks on the part of the U.S.A., against the Soviet Union. "A United States aircraft invaded the air space of our country from the direction of Pakistan." Mr. Krushchev claimed that this aircraft belonged to the United States and was evidently based somewhere in Turkey, Iran or Pakistan. This was a U-2 plane.

The pilot of the plane was Mr. Powers who has been convicted to undergo imprisonment in the U.S.S.R. The matter was referred to Security Council by the U.S.S.R. The U.S. aircraft had been brought down with a wonderful rocket which had destroyed the plane at the first shot.

THE U.S. VIEWPOINT :—President Eisenhower on 11th May, defended the U.S. action by saying that there was the need for intelligence-gathering activities. "No one wants another Pearl Harbour. This means that we must have knowledge of military forces and preparations around the world, especially those capable of massive surprise attack. Secrecy in the Soviet Union makes this essential. In most of the world no large scale attack could be prepared in secret. But in the Soviet Union there is a festish of secrecy and concealment. This is a major cause of international tension and uneasiness today.

".....ever since the beginning of my Administration, I have issued directives to gather in every feasible way, the information required to protect the United States and the free world against surprise attack and to enable them to make effective preparations for defence."

The U.S. State Department in its statement said : "One of the things creating tension in the world today is apprehension over surprise attack with weapons of mass destruction. To reduce mutual suspicion and to give a measure of protection against surprise attack the United States in 1955 offered its "Open skies" proposal—a proposal which was rejected out of hand by the Soviet Union. It is in relation to the danger of surprise attack that planes of the type of the unarmed civilian U-2 aircraft have made flights along the frontiers of the Free World for the past four years."

President Eisenhower was scheduled to visit the U.S.S.R. But owing to this U-2 incident, he had to cancel his visit to the U.S.S.R. Following this incident, there was the breakdown of heads of Government meeting. The meeting of the heads of State and Governments of France, the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet opened in Paris on 16th May, 1960. The conference broke down almost immediately after Mr. Krushchev had issued an unacceptable demand that the United States apologise for the

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U-2 incident, and punish those responsible for it before the discussions could take place. On 17th May the three Western leaders announced that, in view of Mr. Krushchev's attitude, it had been impossible to begin examination of the problems which were to have been discussed. Mr. Macmillan, President Eisenhower and Mr. Krushchev left Paris on 19th May.

VII. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION IN THE USA

In the Presidential election held in November, 1960, Mr. John Fitzerald Kennedy was elected President of the U.S.A. Mr. Kennedy, a Democrat Senator, beat his Republican rival, Mr. Richard Nixon in one of the closest fought elections in American history. Mr. Kennedy is the first Catholic to become President of the U.S.A.

VIII. NEPAL-CHINA AGREEMENT

On 21st March, 1960, in the course of a visit to China, the Prime Minister of Nepal, Mr. B. P. Koirala, signed agreement on boundaries and on economic assistance. The boundary agreement with China provides that a joint committee is to be set up to delineate the frontier on the basis of the existing traditional customary line. The parties agreed that, except for discrepancies in certain sections, their understanding of ths line was basically the same. In cases where Chinese and Nepalese maps differed, but where the state of actual jurisdiction by each side is undisputed, survey teams would determine the boundary in accordance with concrete terrain features (watersheds, valleys, passes, etc.) and the actual jurisdiction by each side. Where the maps differ and the state of actual jurisdiction was disputed, joint teams would ascertain on the spot the state of actual jurisdiction, make adjustments in accordance with the principles of equality, mutual benefit, friendship and mutual accommodation and determine the boundary line.

The economic agreement provided for a grant of £7.5 million in economic aid from China to Nepal over the next three years. A balance of £3 million, left undrawn under an agreement concluded in 1956, is to remain available for the same period.

During a visit by the Chinese Prime Minister, Mr. Chou-En-lai, to Nepal from 26th to 29th April 1960, a Treaty of Peace and Friendship was signed between the two countries.

IX. THE CONGO REPUBLIC

The Belgian Congo became independent, as the Congo Republic, on 30th June, 1960. The new State was accorded general diplomatic recognition.

The new State of Congo Republic is a federal one. The Constitution

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provides for a Council of Ministers headed by a Prime Minister and responsible to both Houses of legislature, which jointly designate the head of the State. The lower house (House of Representatives) comprises one representative, elected by universal adult male suffrage, for every 100,000 population, the membership therefore being at present 137. The Upper House (Senate) comprises members designated by the six provincial Assemblies (14 for each province, of whom at least three must be tribal chiefs or leaders). Each House holds full legislative power.

The Congo Republic consists of the following provinces, namely, Leopoldville, Kasai, Kivu, Katanga, Equator and Eastern. Each province has its own government. The basic law provides that the provinces should have reserved powers in specified matters (provincial finance, police, public works, railways, roads and hydro-electric development ; primary, secondary and technical education ; granting of mining, agricultural or forestry concessions ; proposals for the appointment of junior magistrates.) The powers vested in the Central Government are those relating to external relations, army, State security, national finance, police, public works ; customs and excise, currency, exchange policy, weights and measures ; higher education ; communications (except local railways or roads); soil development ; power co-ordination ; land-tenure ; organisation of judiciary, legal procedure, appointment of magistrates, settlement of conflict of authority between the centre and the provinces ; medical legislation ; general economic policy ; scientific policy.

A general treaty of friendship, assistance and co-operation between Belgium and the Congo was signed on the eve of independence

The head of the State is M. Joseph Kasavubu, leader of *Abako,* a movement deriving its support from the Bakkongo tribe, who number less than a million but have played a large part in the short history of Congolese politics. Abako was founded, as a cultural association, in 1950, but has become more and more a political movement since 1957.

The head of Government is M. Patrice Lumumba, leader of the *Mouvement Nationale Congolaise* (MNC) formed in October 1958. He has tried with varying success, to overcome tribal and regional differences and to bring Congolese politicians together in a national party. The MNC is itself split, but Lumumba's wing is the group with the largest number of seats (35 out of 137) in the lower house.

The most prominent of the provincial leaders is M. Moise Tshombe, leader of the *Confederation des associations du Katanga* (Conakat). Katanga is the richest of the provinces, and is the site of the operations of the *Union Miniere* mining group, producing copper, cobalt, uranium, manganese and zinc. Copper accounts for about one-third of the value of exports from the Congo, and minerals generally for one-half.

Disorders and Dissension :—Soon after independence, there were reports of inter-tribal strife and other acts of violence. On 6th July,

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1960, the *Force publique*, a force about 24,000 strong, under the command of a Belgian officer, mutinied, and in the following days many Belgians fled from the country after some of their compatriots had been the victims of assaults. Belgian parachute troops intervened at Elizabethville (capital of Katanga), at the request of M. Tshombe, after reports that Europeans had been killed there; subsequently Belgian troops also moved in elsewhere.

Secession of Katanga:—On 11th July, M. Tshombe declared Katanga independent, and asked for more Belgian forces to restore order. All military units in the province were placed under the command of a Belgian officer, Colonel Guy Weber. On July 13th Tshombe declared: "We shall have our own government, diplomatic corps and army. We hope for recognition by the Powers of the world." Formal requests for recognition were later received in London and other capitals.

United Nations Action:—On 11th July Lumumba appealed to the United Nations for help in reorganising the mutinous *Force publique*. The UN Secretary-General, Mr. Hammarskjold announced on the same day that a team of civilian administrators and police would be sent to the Congo under UN auspices, the arrangements falling within the technical assistance programme and "more especially the programme for assistance in public administration."

On 14th July, the Security Council adopted by 8 votes with three abstentions (China, France and the UK), a resolution put forward by Tunisia calling for the withdrawal of Belgian troops and authorising the Secretary-General to provide military assistance to Congo. It was announced on the same day that Major-General Carl von Horn, the Swedish Chief of Staff of the United Nations Truce Supervision Organisation in Palestine, had been appointed commander of the United Nations force. Tshombe said that he did not want United Nations troops and would refuse to let them land in Katanga. The first troops to arrive under UN auspices were from Ghana and Tunisia, shortly followed by others from Morocco and Ethiopia.

On 14th July the Congo Government broke off diplomatic relations with Belgium, accusing the Belgian Government of an act of aggression in preparing the secession of Katanga.

Soviet View:—On 13th July the Soviet Government condemned the 'perfidious aggression against the Congo Republic', which, it said, was being carried out by Belgium with the support of leading Western Powers. Two days later Mr. Krushchev denounced in vivid language 'imperialist aggression' in the Congo and said that if it continued, the Soviet Government would not 'shrink from resolute measures.'

Latest Developments:—The developments in Congo have become very complicated. The Belgian army has stayed there, particularly in Katanga. Sharp differences arose between President Kasavubu and

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Prime Minister Lumumba. Lumumba is now under house arrest and Kasavubu has appointed Col. Mobutu as the Prime Minister. The UN forces in Congo have run into difficulties and the Congo army is fighting against the UN forces.

The first task of the UN forces in Congo is to restore law and order. But the UN army has only 19,920 strong, whereas the country is vast and Katanga is equal to Spain in size. By a resolution adopted by the Security Council on 14th July, the Security Council called upon the Belgian Government to effect a speedy withdrawal of their troops and authorised the Secretary-General to take all necessary action to this effect."

The smallness of the UN forces and the vastness of the country has rendered it difficult for the UN forces to restore order in that State. Chaos and lawlessness prevail in Congo and it has now become subject to the political tussle of the Big Powers. On 28th July, Mr. Hammarskjold announced that the United Nations troops would begin to enter Katanga on 6th August, Belgian withdrawals taking place simultaneously.

Tshombe, head of the provisional government of Katanga, which claims to have seceded from the Congo and to have set up an independent state, reacted to this announcement by saying that "the arrival of these troops will be the signal for a general uprising in Katanga."

Struggle for power between Kasavubu and Lumumba :—Meanwhile the struggle for power between President Kasavubu and Lumumba became sharp, the former claiming to have dismissed the latter. Kasavubu appointed Col. Mobutu as the Premier, while Lumumba claimed that he was the elected Premier of Congo. The situation in the Congo became very uncertain and conflicting as to the real position of Kasavubu and Lumumba.

The Secretary-General of the United Nations entered Katanga on 12th August with some 300 Swedish troops. He immediately held talks with Tshombe, head of the provisional Government. In a report to the Security Council, Mr. Hammarskjold specified that the UN forces could "not be used on behalf of the Central Government to subdue or to force the provincial government to a specific line of action ; nor could United Nations facilities be used, for example, to "transport civilian or military representatives, under the authority of the Central Government to Katanga against the decision of the Katanga provincial Government." The forces "had no duty, or right to protect civilian or military personnel representing the Central Government, beyond what follows from its general duty to maintain law and order." On the other hand, it had no right to refuse the Central Government to take any action which by their own means, in accordance with the purposes and principles of the Charter, they can carry through in relation to Katanga.

The head of the Central Government, Lumumba, having already sharply criticised Hammarskjold's interpretation of the Security Council's resolu-

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tion, sent him a series of letters on 15th August. In these he made accusations of connivance with the Katanga Government and with the Belgians, demanded that only African troops should be sent to Katanga and that the United Nations should provide transport and protection throughout the Congo for representatives of the Central Government, and that he had lost confidence in the Secretary-General and requested that a group of neutral observers be sent to the Congo.

Latest Developments :—The latest developments in Congo are that Lumumba has been put under house arrest and practically shorn of all power. Kasavubu has appointed Col. Mobutu as the Premier. Kasavubu is in favour of a confederation for the Congo with maximum powers for the constituent units.

On 22nd November, the United Nations General Assembly voted to seat the Congolese delegation named by President Kasavubu. This indicates an important victory for the United States and other countries which advocated seating Kasavubu's delegation, and a sharp defeat for the Soviet Union, Ghana, Guinea, Mali and other nations which favoured seating a delegation headed by deposed Congolese Premier Patrice Lumumba. Immediately after the vote, the Mali delegation announced that because of the Assembly's decision, his Government was withdrawing from the UN Congo Conciliation Committee.

The conciliation committee, composed of Asian and African nations whose troops are part of the UN force in the Congo, announced that it had decided to delay its departure from the Congo. The vote in favour of Kasavubu's delegation followed a long debate as to the right of Kasavubu, who is in New York, to name a Congolese delegation to the UN. Supporters of Lumumba and Lumumba himself, who has also named a delegation, contend that only the legal Premier of the Congo has a right to name a delegation or speak before the UN.

Armed clashes are going on between the Congolese army and the UN forces. Two Indian army officers were severely beaten up by the Congolese army.

Soviet Attack :—Mr. Zorin, Soviet Deputy Foreign Minister, on November 23, criticised the UN Secretary-General for his Congol Policy. He said that the Soviet Union would not contribute in the Congo operation because the "Secretary-General has exceeded his authority in the expenditure involved."

The latest position in the Congo remains very fluid and uncertain. The fighting between Col. Mobutu's army and UN troops, the seating of the Kasavubu delegation in the UN and the consequent resignation of Guinea and Mali from the UN delegation—these events raised a very difficult issue regarding the functioning of the UN in the Congo.

The Congo took its seat in the United Nations on 25th November

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for the first time since its admission to membership in September last. Mr. Samuel Badibaga represented the Republic in the main Political Committee of the General Assembly. Mr. Badibaga was one of the delegates named by President Joseph Kasavubu.

Mr. Rajeswar Dayal, Mr. Hammarskjold's special representative in the Congo, in his report pointed out that the legitimate government of Mr. Lumumba has been supplanted with the aid of the U.N. by a regime of "half-educated young people, with Fascist tendencies, who are brutalizing the country and selling it wholesale and retail."

Lumumba Escapes :—Mr. Lumumba, deposed Congolese Premier, dramatically escaped on November 31, 1960, from his official residence where he had been held a virtual prisoner by troops of Colonel Mobutu for about two months, and made for his native province of Stanleyville. Mr. Lumumba is expected to throw the biggest challenge to President Kasavubu and Colonel Mobutu if he manages to reach Stanleyville, about 800 miles north-east of Leopoldville and capital of Orientale province, where he continues to enjoy strong support. Diplomatic observers think that developments in the Congo would take a new turn if Mr. Lumumba succeeds in reaching Stanleyville. So far he had been virtually neutralized politically and had been living under UN protection. But if he starts mastering Congolese soldiers and gendarmerie in Stanleyville to fight Col. Mobutu's troops and President Kasavubu, the Congo would be facing a bloody civil war.

X. CYPRUS

It was officially announced by Britain on 10th July, 1960 that the new Republic of Cyprus has become independent on 16th August, 1960. Elections for the island's first House of Representatives and for the Greek and Turkish communal chambers was held on 31st July and 7th August respectively. The agreement on the future of the United Kingdom bases in the island was signed in Nicosia on 6th July.

The transitional committee which was established in Cyprus after the signing of the London Agreement in February, 1959, has been responsible for drawing up plans for adapting and reorganising the government machinery in preparation for the transfer of authority to the independent republic, and has been meeting, during the transitional period, with the Governor's executive council as a joint council. The purpose has been to build up a cabinet system, and Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot members of the council have assumed certain ministerial responsibilities, while the Governor has remained head of the executive with full legislative powers.

The three treaties comprise a Draft Treaty of Establishment, giving effect to the United Kingdom Declaration of 17th February, 1959, con-

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cerning the sovereign base areas; a Treaty of Guarantee between the United Kingdom, Greece, Turkey and the Republic of Cyprus; and a Draft Treaty of Alliance between Greece, Turkey and the Republic of Cyprus, on the lines laid down in the Zurich and London agreements.

British Bases:—Britain will have some sovereign base areas in Cyprus. Among the rights and facilities secured to the United Kingdom in the Republic are freedom of movement between the sovereign base areas and other specified places; the right for military aircraft to overfly the Republic's territory; the right to use its ports and harbours; the right to instal and operate communications systems and postal services; and the right to employ Cypriot nationals. Provision is made for the acquisition and disposal of immovable property by the United Kingdom in the Republic, and for it to have training facilities there. The joint use of Nicosia airfield for civil and military purposes is provided for, and the United Kingdom Government has undertaken to pay £500,000 towards the construction of a new civil air terminal.

Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean, with an area of 3,572 square miles. The total population was estimated to be 549,200 at the end of 1958. According to the 1956 registration of population, 78·8 per cent were Greek-Cypriots, 17·5 per cent were Turkish-Cypriots and 3·7 per cent Armenians, Maronites and others.

In the Presidential elections on December 13, 1959, Archbishop Makarios was elected first President of the future republic, receiving just under 67 per cent of the votes cast. Dr. Kutchuk was officially declared Vice-President of the republic on December 3, when his nomination was unopposed.

XI. ELECTIONS IN CEYLON

The Sri Lanka Freedom Party was returned to power in the general election held in Ceylon on 20th July, 1960. Out of the 151 seats contested, the Sri Lanka Freedom Party gained 75, which, with the 6 seats to be filled by nomination to represent minority interests by the Governor-General on the Prime Minister's advice, will give it a clear majority over all other filled by nomination to represent minority interests by the Governor-General parties in the new House of Representatives.

A notable feature of the electoral campaign was the "no contest" agreement concluded between the three principal left-wing parties (the Sri Lanka Freedom Party. the Lanka Sama Samaja Party, and the Commonwealth Party) which was designed to "permit the widest mobilisation of forces in order to defeat the United National Party." The United National Party, which was the largest group in the old House of Representatives, lost heavily and secured only 30 seats after contesting 128.

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The general election, the second to be held in Ceylon in 1960, resulted from the dissolution of Parliament on 23rd April following the defeat of Mr. Dudley Senanayake's Government in the debate on the Address only one month after its formation.

New Cabinet :—Mr. Dudley Senanayake resigned on the morning following the election, and the leader of the Sri Lanka Freedom Party, Mrs. Sirimavo Bandarnaike, was sworn in as Prime Minister on the same day. The new cabinet was sworn in on 23rd July, when the allocation of portfolios was made.

Mrs. Bandarnaike, the widow of the former Prime Minister, Mr. Solomon Bandarnaike, is the first woman in the world to hold the office of Prime Minister. She did not contest a seat in the general election, but was nominated on 2nd August to a seat in the Senate from which a member of her Party had resigned. This is the first time that a Prime Minister of Ceylon has sat in the Upper House.

XII. SINO-BURMESE FRONTIER AGREEMENT

On 28th January, 1960, a Treaty of Friendship and Mutual Non-Aggression and a frontier agreement were signed in Peking by the Prime Minister of Burma, General Ne Win, and the Chinese Prime Minister Chou-En-lai. The agreement was for the establishment of a joint committee to delimit the frontier. In the north the boundary is to follow the existing line, except that the area of Hpimaw, Gawlum and Kanfang is to be ceded to China. The Namwan assigned Tract, now held by Burma on perpetual lease (under a boundary convention of 1897) is to be ceded to Burma. In exchange, certain areas inhabited by the Panhung and Panlao tribes are to be ceded to China. Otherwise, the frontier in this area is to follow the line agreed upon in 1941 between the British and Chinese Governments.

The joint committee is to draft a new boundary treaty, which will cover not only the sections mentioned above, but also the sections of the boundary which were already delimited in the past and need no adjustment. The agreement is subject to ratification.

XIII. TIBET REPORT OF INTERNATIONAL COMMISSION OF JURISTS

A report, *Tibet and the Chinese People's Republic,* made to the International Commission of Jurists by its Legal Inquiry Committee on Tibet, was published in Geneva on 8th August, 1960. The committee examined witnesses among Tibetan refugees in India but the Chinese authorities refused to allow its members to carry on their investigations in Tibet. The inquiry dealt with the question whether genocide had been committed against the Tibetans, the question of human rights in Tibet and the international status of Tibet.

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Status of Tibet :—The committee did not attempt a definite analysis in terms of modern international law of the exact juridical status of Tibet, but came to the view that " Tibet was at the very least a *de facto* independent State when the agreement on Peaceful Measures in Tibet was signed in 1951 ", that it surrendered its independence by the 1951 agreement with China and that because of the violation of that agreement by China, the Tibetan Government was entitled to repudiate it, as it did in March 1959. Therefore Tibet's status was such as to make the Tibetan question one for the legitimate concern of the United Nations even on the restrictive interpretation of matters essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of a State.

Genocide :—The conclusion of the committee in relation to genocide was as follows : " According to the Convention for the Prevention and Punishment of Genocide, which was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in December 1948, human groups against which genocide is recognised as a crime in international law are national, racial, ethnical and religious. The committee found that acts of genocide had been committed in Tibet in an attempt to destroy the Tibetans as a religious group, and that such acts are acts of genocide independently of any conventional obligations. The committee did not find that there was sufficient proof of the destruction of Tibetans as a race, nation or ethnical group as such by methods that can be regarded as genocide in international law. The evidence established four principal facts in relation to genocide :

(*a*) that the Chinese will not permit adherence to and practice of Buddhism in Tibet ;

(*b*) that they have systematically set out to eradicate this religious belief in Tibet ;

(*c*) that in pursuit of this design they have killed religious figures because their religious beliefs and practice was an encouragement and example to others ;

(*d*) that they have forcibly transferred large number of Tibetan children to a Chinese materialist environment in order to prevent them from having a religious upbringing.

The committee therefore found that genocide had been committed against this religious group by such methods. The committee also has found that there has been violation of human rights by the Chinese in Tibet.

XIV. DEVELOPMENTS IN AFRICA

The existing ten independent African States are being joined by many others during 1960. There is already an African group at the United Nations, whose members consult together and try to determine common lines of action, and its numbers have been greatly augmented by the end of 1960. Eight more members of the French Community have achieved

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independence in August 1960. They are : Niger, Ivory Coast, Upper Volta, Dahomey, Gabon and Central African Republic, Congo and Chad. Mauritania obtained independence in November 1960. Nigeria became independent, as a member of the Commonwealth, in October.

Mauritania proclaimed independence on 28th November. It was a French African Colony.

One Parliament for Ghana and Mali :—Ghana, which already forms a union with Guinea, will set up a common Parliament with the Mali Republic, announced Dr. Nkrumah, on 27th November, 1960. Ghana, an independent republic within the British Commonwealth, and Guinea, which achieved independence outside the French Community, announced just two years ago that they were establishing the nucleus of a union of African States.

Mali, whose population is about 3,700,000 was formerly the French Sudan. It formed a federation known as Mali with Senegal and acquired independence within the French Community. The Federation broke up in August 1960, when Senegal withdrew, and the former Sudan retained the name of Mali. Franco-Mali relations deteriorated during the break-up of the Federation, although Mali is still formally a member of the French Community.

Monckton Commission on future of Central African Federation :—Britain appointed an advisory commission under the Chairmanship of Lord Monckton to review the position of Central African Federation. The Commission in its report expressed the view that the three African territories of Southern and Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland should remain linked in a federation, but the structure of the present seven-year-old Federation should be recast into a "form more acceptable to its inhabitants." The report's recommendations are purely advisory and will now be studied by the five Governments concerned—those of Britain, the Federation, and the three territories—for discussion at the forthcoming conference to review the federal constitution.

The Commission concludes that to break up the federation "at this crucial moment in the history of Africa would be an admission that there is no hope of survival for any multi-racial society on the African continent, and that differences of colour and race are irreconcilable. We cannot agree to such a conclusion." In view of African dislike of federation, says the report, a new name should be chosen.

Right of Secession :—On the question of the right to secede from the Federation, the Commission says that to grant the right of secession might provide a safety valve and make it less likely that secession would be insisted upon, and also makes the point that it should be made clear before the review conference that the question of secession will be discussed there.

The Commission recommends that a new Constitution for Northern

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Rhodesia and Constitutional changes for Southern Rhodesia should be negotiated and put into effect without awaiting a full revision of the Federal Structure. The report states that "while the Federation cannot continue unless it commands general acceptance, dissolution would lead to hardship, poverty and distress.

Nyasaland :—Nyasaland is one of the constituent territories of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. Ever since the federation came into being in 1953, the more militant nationalist leaders of this small British protectorate have been in a state of conflict with the authorities. Finally, relations deteriorated to a point where, in 1959, a state of emergency had to be declared ; and this was followed by the arrest of many leading African politicians, including Dr. Hastings K. Banda. Subsequently an agreement was reached between Dr. Banda and the British Government providing Nyasaland with a new territorial constitution. The constitution for the first time gives the 2,500,000 Africans of Nyasaland an elected majority in the Legislative Council, as well as a share in the Executive Council.

Although the principle of universal franchise has not been recognised, the Constitution opens the way for a substantial number of voters to elect their own representatives. Ultimate responsibility still rests with the Governor and the Executive Council whose policies will be assured of a majority in the Legislative Council.

The Nyasaland conference did not, however, discuss the future relationship of the protectorate to the Federation. That question will be settled at a separate conference to be held in London early next year when the federal constitution comes up for review. Dr. Banda and his supporters are strongly opposed to Nyasaland's continued membership of the Federation. They prefer to seek an association with the other British territory on its frontiers, Tanganyika.

Nigeria :—Nigeria, a British colony, became independent on October 1, 1960 and also a full member of the Commonwealth from that date. The federation of Nigeria, covering some 373,250 square miles, is situated on the west coast of Africa, on the Gulf of Guinea. It has a population of about 35.3 million. All but about 27,000 are Africans of some 250 different tribal groups, the main groups being Hausa (18 per cent.), Ibo (16 per cent.), Yoruba (14 per cent.), and Fulani (10 per cent.). It has a sixth of the population of the entire African continent.

English is the official and commercial language. Lagos is the capital of the Federation. Nigeria is predominantly an agricultural country. Agriculture produces some 85 per cent of its exports and supplies all of the food consumed by its peoples.

British Guiana :—The U.K. Government has accepted the principle of independence for British Guiana. It has agreed that in

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August, 1961 a new constitution should be introduced giving the territory full internal self-government.

Somaliland Protectorate :—The British Somaliland Protectorate became independent on June 26, 1960. On April 6, 1960 all the elected members of the Protectorate Legislative Council supported a resolution in favour of independence and union with the neighbouring territory of Somalia which received independence on July, 1.

XV. TURKEY

On 27th May, 1960, following a period of increased political tension in Turkey and the staging of a number of public demonstrations against the Government, the armed forces assumed power. Mr. Adnan Menderes, leader of the Democratic Party, who had been Prime Minister since 1950, and Mr. Celal Bayar, who had been President since the same year, were deposed and placed under arrest.

In April, 1960, the Government had set up a special commission, with far-reaching powers, to investigate alleged illegal acts by the People's Republican Party and a section of the Press. This step was opposed by Ismet Inonu, leader of the People's Republican Party and former President, who, together with several supporters, was temporarily suspended from the Grand National Assembly on 27th April. The next day students organised demonstrations in Ankara and Istanbul. Martial law was declared in both cities, and military units assisted the police in maintaining order. Demonstrations were continued on subsequent days, and casualties, some of them fatal, were reported. On 21st May, Cadets and officers from the War College in Ankara held a demonstration against the Government.

Early on 27th May, the armed forces took over the Government of the Turkish Republic ; they encountered little resistance. A National Unity Committee, with 20 members, was formed under the leadership of General Cemal Gursel, until recently Commander-in-Chief of the Turkish land forces. The National Assembly was declared dissolved, and a commission composed of eight university professors was established to draw up a new constitution. On 28th May, the National Unity Committee announced the formation of a Cabinet with General Gursel as Prime Minister and Minister of Defence ; of the other 17 members, only two were military men. On 31st May Gursel declared that he was the Head of the State. A commission consisting of professors of law and of judges, was established to investigate the extent to which the former government had violated the constitution, while another commission, composed only of judges, was established to investigate offences by the previous government against the civil and criminal law.

In a communique issued on 27th May in the National Unity Committee, it was stated : "Our armed forces had to act in this way in order to save the political parties from the position of uncompromising antagonism

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in which they had fallen, and to secure, in the shortest possible time, free and fair elections under the supervision and arbitration of an impartial administration above party politics, so as to hand over power to those who succeed in the elections, regardless of their political allegiance."

The new government has been recognised by all major Powers.

AFRICAN SCENE

When the Second World War ended, only four countries of Africa—Egypt, Ethiopia, Liberia and the Union of South Africa enjoyed independent status. The rest of the continent were under the colonial rule of Britain or France or Belgium or Portugal or Spain. The Italian colonies had been liquidated but those areas were still not self-governing but were under the Trusteeship of the United Nations. But within the last 10 years, a large part of the continent has achieved independence. Most of the U.N. Trust territories, major part of the French and the British Empire and all of Belgian Africa have become independent. Only Portugal and Spain show no inclination to part with their colonial rule in the African Continent.

At the end of the Second World War, the French had following territories under her colonial rule—Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco, French West Africa, French Equatorial Africa, French Somaliland, Madagascar, and Comoro Archipelago. With the assumption of power by General de Gaulle in French, he gave the choice to all French territories overseas to accept or reject his new French Constitution which set up a French Community. But the rising tide of African nationalism swept away all barriers. These States started becoming independence though remaining with the "French Community"—a British device like the Commonwealth. The "French Community" which came into existence under the de Gaulle Constitution is rapidly becoming as association of States, each as free as any member of the Commonwealth. The manner in which France has dealt with her African Colonies is certainly to her credit. There is no desire to hang on in territories where French imperialism is not wanted. As against this rapid political evolution, we have to set off the ostrich-like policy of the Portuguese in Angola and Mozambique and France's attitude towards Algeria.

We now give below a rapid survey of all the States of Africa which have thrown out their colonial yoke and which have yet to gain independence.

1. *Libya* was the first country of Africa to gain independence since the World War II. She was a former Italian colony which came under U.N. Trusteeship and administered by England and France. She became independent on December 24, 1951.

2. *Sudan* gained her independence an January 1, 1956.—She had been

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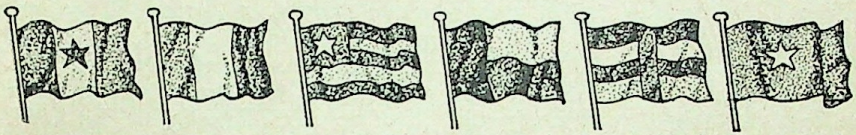
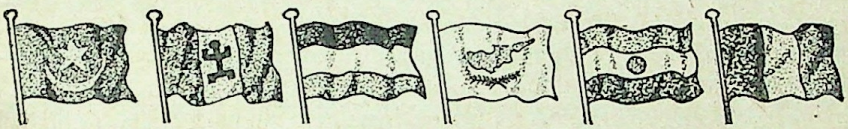
under the Anglo-Egyptian condominium since 1899 which was abrogated by Egypt in 1951, but two years later Egypt again reached agreement with Britain setting self-Government for Sudan in three years. The agreement was carried out.

3. *Morocco* was a former French protectorate in North Africa. Morocco had been unler France since 1912. She gained independence on March 2, 1956 after fighting. Spain ceded to her a chunk of adjoining territory which she held as a protectorate.

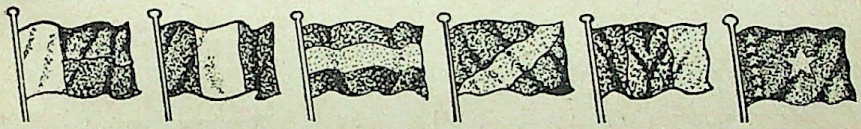
4. *Tunisia*—was also another a French protectorate since 1881. She gained her independence after fighting on March 20, 1956.



SENEGAL IVORY COAST TOGO DAHOMY CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC SOMALIA



MAURITANIA MALI REPUBLIC UPPER VOLTA CYPRUS NIGER CHAD



MALAGASY NIGERIA GABON CONGO *Brazzaville* CAMEROUN CONGO *Leopoldville*

Flags of the New African States

5. *Ghana*—This independent State was created out of the former British protectorate of Gold Coast in West Africa. She gained her complete independence on March 6, 1957. The contiguous State of Togoland which was an trust territory under the United Nations Trusteeship and administered by Britain and France, joined Ghana after a decision by U.N. supervised plebecite.

6. *Guinea*—was a French territory. Upon assuming power in France, General de Gaulle gave to all French territories overseas to accept or reject

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his new constitution setting up a French Community. Of all the colonial States of France, Guinea broke away and on October 2, 1958 became independent.

7. *Camaroons* became independent on January, 1960. Camaroons were a former German colony which had come under U.N. Trusteeship and were being administered in two parts by Britain and France respectively. In 1958 France offered independence to the area administered by her and the U.N. terminated the Trusteeship on January 1, 1960. The State is now known as Republic of Camaroon. Capital—*Yaounde.*

8. *Republic of Togo* became independent on April 27, 1960 under French Community which was formerly known as French Togoland. Capital—*Lome.*

9. *Mali Federation*—French colonies of Senegal and French Sudan. The two countries proclaimed independence and have combined to form within the French Community the Republic of Mali, on June 21, 1960. Capital—*Tamako.*

10. *Republic of Malagasay* was formerly known as Madagascar, proclaimed her independence on June 26, 1960. Capital—*Tananarive.*

11. *Republic of Ivory Coast* became independent in August, 1960. Capital—*Abidjan.*

12. *Republic of Upper Volta* gained independence in August, 1960. Capital—*Guagadougou.*

13. *Republic of Dohomey* became independence of France in August, 1960. Capital—*Porto-Novo.*

14. *Niger* became free of France in August, 1960. Capital—*Niamey.*

15. *Republic of Gabon* once a France Colony became independent in August, 1960. Capital—*Libreville.*

16. *Republic of Congo* (French) gained independence in August, 1960.

17. *Central African Republic* was inaugurated as an independent State in August, 1960. Capital—*Banguia.*

18. *Chad Republic*—A member of the French Community proclaimed independence from France on 12th August, 1960. Chad Republic is in the heart of Africa. Capital—*Fort Lamby.*

19. *Congo Republic* became sovereign State in June, 1960. It was formerly Belgian Congo. Capitals—*Brazzaville, Leopoldville.*

20. *Somali Republic* (Somalia) was born on July 1, 1960. Their new State consists of the former U.N. Trust territory of Somalia (it was before that Italian Somaliland) and the former British protectorate of British Somaliland. Capital—*Mogadishu.*

21. *Eritrea,* the former Italian colony which was U.N. Trust territory on the Red Sea Coast had become autonomous on September, 15, 1952 and had merged with Ethiopia.

22. *Nigeria* which was a British colony and protectorate, became independent within the Commonwealth on October 1, 1960. It is one of

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the most prosperous States of Africa. Its area is 156,669 sq. miles. Capital —*Lagos.*

23. *Sierra Leon,* another British protectorate in the west, will become independent on April 27, 1961.

24. *Mauritania* an autonomous republic within French community became independent on November 26, 1960. Capital—*Nauakchott.*

25. *British Camaroons* will have separate plebicite under U.N. supervision for the northern and southern parts to determine whether their respective peoples wish to obtain independance as part of Nigeria to the west or the Republic of Camaroon to the east.

26. The Trust territory of *Tanganyika* which is under British administration has now got Legislative Councils from September, 1960 and will become partially self-governing.

British Possessions—With so many British Colonial States becoming independent, there are still many areas in Africa under colonial rule. The remaining British possessions are *Gambia* in the west and *Bamboland, Swaziland, Bachuanaland, Federation of Rhodesia and Nayasaland, Zanzibar, Uganda* and *Kenya* in the east.

Colonial States of Africa

French Possessions—Though there has been liquidation of the major part of French possessions in Africa, *Algeria* in the north, *French Somaliland* in the east and the *Comoro Archipelago* off Madagascar are still within the French domination. Algeria is fighting for its independence for several years. French Somaliland and Comoros became French Overseas Territories when they accepted General de Gaulle's new Constitution.

Spanish Possessions—There are four Spanish possessions in Africa, such as, *Ifni,* a small enclave in Morocco, *Spanish Sahara, Island of Fernando Poo* off the Cameroo shore and *Rio Muni.* These Spanish possessions have been denied independence.

Portuguese Possessions—Portugal has *Portuguese Guinea* in the west, the islands of *Sao Thome* and *Principe* in the Gulf of Guinea, *Angola* and *Mozambique.* Portugal has neither liberalised in rule, nor gives any indication of granting independence to her colonies.

Union of South Africa's possessions—The former territory of South-West Africa which was previously a German colony, came under the League of Nations mandate after the First World War. Britain was given the mandate and on her behalf South Africa has been administering it since December 17, 1920. Since the Second World war, United Nations has been trying to get South Africa submit South-West Africa to Trusteeship or some other form of international control, but South Africa has been refusing to comply in spite of directives of U.N. to this effect.

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FIFTEENTH SESSION OF THE U.N.O.

The General Assembly of the United Nations meets every third Tuesday of September. The fifteenth session of the U.N.O., which met this year, 1960, was a unique one.

For the first time in its history, ten heads of State (including a king), thirteen heads of government, fifty-seven foreign ministers and fourteen ministers of Cabinet rank came to Manhatten island to attend the Assembly session. For the first time, thirteen African States (largest number of States from any continent) were admitted as members unanimously. What was an association of 82 members last year, this year was strengthened by the admission of 17 more members and the world forum is now stronger than ever before. For the first time in its fifteen-year history, the General Assembly saw passions run high and the president was compelled to adjourn it in uproar. Included in its record 82 item agenda were the following : disarmament, freedom for all colonies, Congo, Tibet, racial segregation in Africa, etc.

Mr. Boland of Ireland was elected President of the General Assembly. The delegates from Japan, Libya, Sudan, Pakistan, Bulgaria, Venezuela, Panama and Canada were elected as Vice-Presidents. The five nations which automatically got Vice-Presidential seats were U.S.S.R., U.S.A., Britain, France and China.

Following is the list of Chairmen of the various Committees.

Sir Claude Corea (Ceylon)	..	Political and Security Committee.
Mr. Augusta Carlet (Haiti)	..	Special (*ad hoc*) Political Committee.
Mr. Anos Stanovnik (Yugoslavia)	..	Economic and Financial Committee.
Mr. Edward Mezinescu (Rumania)	..	Social, Humanitarian and Cultural Committee.
Mr. Adnan Pachachi (Iran)	..	Trusteeship Committee.
Mario Maioli (Italy)	..	Administrative and Budgetary Committee.
Mr. Ortis Martin (Costa Rica)	..	Legal Committee.

One of the first businesses to be transacted was the admittance of thirteen African States and Cyprus. They are :

(1) Republic of Cameroon.
(2) Togo Republic.
(3) Malagasy Republic.
(4) Republic of Somalia.
(5) Republic of Congo.
(6) Republic of Dahomey.
(7) Republic of Niger.
(8) Republic of Upper Volta.
(9) Republic of Ivory Coast.
(10) Republic of Chad.
(11) Gabon Republic.
(12) Central African Republic.
(13) Former French Congo.

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On first October, Nigeria became independent and was admitted as the 99th Member of the U.N.O.

Mr. Eisenhower was the first head of State to address of the U.N. General Assembly. Major part of his speech was devoted to the declaration of war against poverty, illiteracy and disease. It was acclaimed by the press and the public as restrained and reconciliatory. It was a carefully worded speech expressing his deep concern for the necessity of thawing the cold war and for the welfare of the newly independent African States. Eisenhower expressed the willingness of the United States to work with the peace-loving nations for a world without war. It was a speech befitting the great President of a great democracy. Said the President, "the international control of atomic energy and general and complete disarmament can no more be accomplished by rhetoric than can economic development of newly independent countries. Both of these immense tasks facing mankind call for serious, painstaking, costly, laborious and non-propaganda approaches."

Marshal Tito of Yugoslavia addressing the General Assembly placed the following suggestion for its consideration, (1) calling all nations to put a halt to nuclear tests, (2) to effect a general cut in military budgets. The sums economised in this way should be devoted to assisting under-developed nations, (3) to transfer of fissionable materials for peaceful uses and (4) for military disengagement in Central Europe.

What was described as a warlike speech was delivered by Mr. Khrushev. He accused the Secretary-General of the U.N.O., for his, what he described, as his pro-Western actions in the (former Belgian) Congo. He demanded Mr. Hammerskjoeld's resignation forthwith. The Secretary-General, who commands the confidence of all the other members of the Assembly replied that "it is easy to resign, what is difficult to remain. It will be betraying the confidence 'they' have placed in me." The Secretary-General meant the uncommitted nations by the 'they'. Mr. Khruschev, suggested the abolition of the Secretary-General and the appointment of a triumvirate in its stead. The triumvirate should consist of one representative from the socialist countries, one from the western block and one from the neutral block. All decisions which are unanimous will be carried out by the triumvirate and no block can be weighed against another. Somehow, it is doubted how a triumvirate will replace effectively the present Secretary-General's post. It is feared that such a group secretaries will paralyse the activities of the UNO. While there is general consensus of opinion that the structure of the U.N.O., needs to be changed to suit the present conditions, the idea of a triumvirate did not find much support. Ghana and Guinea proposed the appointment of three deputies or three Secretaries-General who will assist the Secretary-General in the discharge of his duties. Shri Nehru, Prime Minister of India, suggested the appointment of a committee of advisors to guide the Secretary-General

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to carry on the Security Council's decisions. This advisory committee may consist of two to five members chosen according to geographic regions. This will bypass the need to revise the charter, a virtual impossibility in view of the great powers' veto.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS IN INDIA

I. INDIA AND NEPAL

Prime Minister Nehru's declaration in the Indian Parliament that India would regard any aggression on Nepal as an aggression on India was welcomed in both the countries. India agreed to afford financial assistance for Nepal's development programme to the extent of Rs. 14 crores during Third Five-year Plan period and in addition agreed to construct the East Kosi Canal at a cost of Rs. 3.4 crores. The total aid of 18 crores includes Rs. 4 crores out of the previous grant which is not likely to be spent during the First Plan Period. The joint programmes includes the Kosi Barrage at Hanumannagar and the proposed Gandak irrigation and power project at a cost of Rs. 50·5 crores.

During India's Second Plan period, the aid offered to Nepal was worth Rs. 10 crores in the shape of cash grants, services of technical and other personnel and supply of equipment and material for various development projects and programmes. It was anticipated that a sum of Rs. 3·68 crores would have been spent from 1-4-1956 to 31-3-1960 on technical and economic assistance to Nepal. For the remaining year of the Plan period, a sum of Rs. 2·84 crores had been provided for in the Budget Estimates.

II. INDIA AND GOA

In reversal of the policy which has been in force for the past few years, the Central Government has decided to facilitate travel between India and Goa by opening two new land routes. Simultaneously, the Centre has agreed to lend Dadra and Nagar Havelli, the Portuguese enclaves which liberated themselves, the services of an Indian official to act as their administrator.

Besides providing the new routes, India has simplified certain travel regulations. In both respects, however, India has acted unilaterally and the routes can be used only if the Portuguese authorities place no barriers on their side of the frontier. At present the only land route to Goa lies *via* Majali. The new routes, which was opened from October 1, 1960, are first *via* Belgaum, Londa and Anmode and, second *via* Sawantbadi and Lakkarkot.

As at present Goans will be permitted to enter India producing only identification documents while Indians wishing to go to Goa will have to

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obtain visa through the Brazilian embassy. An important change which has been introduced from 1st October is to permit foreigners other than Goans to enter India through the land routes. They will however have to apply for Indian visas which, on being granted, will be issued to them at the frontier posts.

India is taking certain steps to discourage smuggling between India and Goa. None crossing the border may carry more than Rs. 50 in Indian currency although the import of all foreign currencies except the Goan is permitted.

India, Goa and U.N.O. :—India and seven other Afro-Asian countries on November 8, 1960 asked the General Assembly to declare that Angola, Mozambique, Goa and other overseas possessions of Portugal and Spain were non-self-governing territories with a right to independence.

Mr. Krishna Menon, India's Defence Minister, introduced in the Assembly's Trusteeship Committee a draft resolution listing four regions as territories as administered by Spain and ten regions as territories administered by Portugal. Co-sponsoring the draft resolution with India were Afghanistan, Burma, Ceylon, Ghana, Guinea, Nepal and Nigeria.

Spain and Portugal claim that they have no dependent territories and that the regions listed in the draft are "overseas provinces" enjoying the same degree of independence and rights as the mother countries in Europe. For this reason, they claim they have no obligation to keep the U.N. informed of developments in their overseas possessions, as Article 73(E) of the Charter requires of member States with dependencies.

Mr. Krishna Menon, declared, "Goa is a colony of Portugal. The liberation of Goa is the part of an unfinished task of liberating India. "We as Government have undertaken no steps towards the spread of the liberation movement into Goa largely out of considerations of its possible repurcussions on international peace and security, in the sense that we do not want to start trouble anywhere. But our country is one and we reserve ourselves our right to liberate this remnant colonial rule."

III. INTERNATIONAL COURT'S JUDGEMENT ON PORTUGUESE ENCLAVES

The International Court of Justice at the Hague gave the ruling on April 12, 1960 that Portugal has no right of passage for her armed forces to her enclaves in India, but she has the right of passage for private persons. The Court was giving judgement on Portugal's application asking the International Court to recognise her right of passage between her territory of Daman on the west coast and the inland enclaves of Dadra and Nagar Haveli. Portugal lost control on these enclaves after a popular rising in 1954. Portugal claimed that under Article 17 of the treaty of 1779, she had acquired sovereignty over Dadra and Nagar Haveli. The Court found

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that the 1779 treaty was valid, but did not grant sovereignty. It only allowed a grant of Rs. 12,000 annually. But the Court was of the view that Portuguese sovereignty over the villages had by implication been recognised by the British and subsequently tacitly recognised by India. As a consequence, Dadra and Nagar Haveli acquired the character of Portuguese enclaves within Indian territory.

IV. INDIA AND THE CONGO

India supports a united Congo. India has sent an army unit as part of the UN operating in the Congo. Mr. Rajeshwar Dayal has been appointed as the UN Secretary-General's personal representative. The events in the Congo are however moving speedily and with the deposition of Patrice Lumumba, the Prime Minister, by Col. Mobutu, the situation has become very complicated. Further developments suggest that now that Lumumba has been thrown out of power and is now under arrest, Mobutu is also trying to throw away Kasavubu from power. Col. Mobutu is being helped by the Belgians to remain in power. Civil war has broken out in several parts of the Congo between Mobutu's forces and the supporters of Lumumba. The UN is being charged by many members to have been helping the cause of the Belgians in supporting Col. Mobutu against Lumumba.

As a protest against the UN's action in the Congo in indirectly supporting the Belgian cause by extending support to Mobutu, Ceylon and UAR have decided to withdraw their army units from the Congo. Ghana army units have already been withdrawn from Congo. In the Rajya Sabha Pandit Nehru, the Prime Minister of India, declared that India would not withdraw her army from the Congo. India will remain with the UN in its action in the Congo.

Serious fighting has broken out in Equateur Province between Congolese soldiers supporting the deposed Premier, Mr. Lumumba, and those loyal to Col. Mobutu. Fighting began as soon as the pro-Lumumba Orientalle Province closed its frontiers in preparation for declaring itself an independent State. Orientalle has definitely decided to declare itself an independent State, but it was not immediately known if Equateur, Kasai and Kivu would also do the same. All these provinces in the centre and the north of the Congo are predominantly pro-Lumumba.

UN officials said that after the closure of its frontier, the position of Orientalle Province was similar to that of the breakaway Katanga and sending of troops by Col. Mobutu there would have to be cleared with UN Secretary-General, Mr. Hammarskjoeld. Meanwhile the UN on December 6 withdrew its guards from the homes of all Congolese leaders including those of the President Kasavubu, Col. Mobutu and the Provincial President, Mr. Cleophus Kamitato.

The UN has also decided to withdraw nearly a third of its total troops

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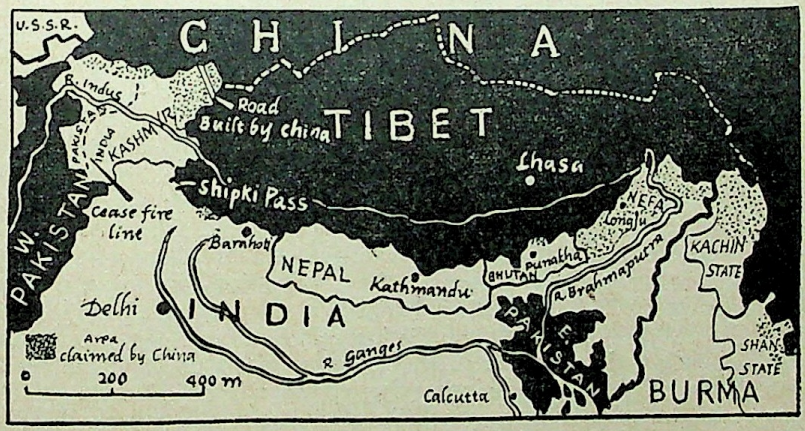
in Congo presently deployed in the countryside to protect Belgian plantations and installations. All aid centres, such as Red Cross ones, and those involving UN personnel will be withdrawn to strategic points where UN forces would be concentrated to give effective protection to its own staff and provide greater mobility.

Mr. Nehru told the Lok Sabha on December 12 that India would not withdraw her personnel from the Congo for the present because a solution to the Congolese problems could only be found through the UN. But the Government would consider this decision if future developments so demanded and if Indian personnel were not treated properly. Mr. Nehru made a sharp attack on the manner the UN has functioned in the Congo.

Mr. Nehru suggested three steps to solve the Congo tangle—the convening of the Congolese Parliament, the withdrawal of Belgians from the Congo and the release of all political prisoners—including Mr. Lumumba. He said that in spite of the fact that Mr. Kasavubu's recognition in the UN was meant to "bolster up" his authority to deal with developments in the Congo, the situation had become worse. He emphasized that Col. Mobutu had come to power by what amounted to a *coup d'etat.*

V. INDO-CHINESE RELATIONS

Barahoti :—Mr. Nehru told the Lok Sabha on December 8, 1960, that in the course of the recent discussions between officials of India and China on Sino-Indian border disputes, status of Barahoti was not



discussed specifically, but it presumably had come in as part of a larger picture. Mr. Nehru said the Barahoti dispute had gone on for several years, right almost from the beginning of this decade. Talks had gone

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on between India and China on this matter and it was decided that this particular pasture area should not be occupied by any armed personnel, either of India or of China. "Unarmed people can go there and we have been sending our revenue officials there in summer months." Barahoti is just a camping ground in Chamoli district of the new Uttar Khand division of Uttar Pradesh. There is no village as such at this place, nor any residence. In summer months it is used as a camping ground by our revenue party and the Indian and Tibetan traders.

Pilgrimage to Western Tibet :—Mr. Nehru strongly expressed himself against Indian pilgrims visiting holy places in Western Tibet in the face of the Chinese Government's announcement that it could not guarantee protection to them. China has denied the right to Indian pilgrims to fulfil their religious obligations in Kailash and Manassarovar. This is in violation of the 1954 Indo-Chinese agreement. Owing to the advice of the local authorities that Indian pilgrims should not visit western Tibet, only 36 pilgrims went on pilgrimage to Kailash and Manassarovar.

Longju :—Over the border disputes between India and China, there were two series of talks in 1960. In the first half of the year, talks between these two countries were held in New Delhi. The second series of talks were held in Rangoon during December. On December 9, 1960, the Prime Minister of India informed the Lok Sabha that border talks between India and Chinese officials had been concluded.

The Chinese are reported to have withdrawn from Longju, a border outpost in Indian territory in north-east frontier. The withdrawal was made because the Chinese soldiers suffered casualty on account of an epidemic. Mr. Nehru confirmed that the Chinese had abandoned their post at Longju, withdrawing three miles to the north, because of the outbreak of an epidemic. He described this withdrawal as "one of convenience."

Mr. Nehru declared that India would not occupy Longju because occupation would amount to a "major undertaking" and because neither side was supposed to be in occupation of the area. The Prime Minister explained that although the Chinese had not accepted the proposal that neither side should occupy Longju, India proposed to adhere to it.

Nehru-Chou Meeting :—At the invitation of the Prime Minister of India, Mr. Chou-en-lai, Premier of China, arrived in Delhi on April 19, 1960. The two Prime Ministers had several long talks. They explained fully their respective stands on the problems affecting the border areas. This led to greater understanding of the views of the two Governments but the talks did not result in resolving the differences that had arisen. The two Prime Ministers were of opinion that further examination should take place by officials of the two sides of the factual material in the possession of both the Governments.

The two Prime Ministers therefore agreed that officials of the two

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Governments should meet and examine, check and study all historical documents, records, accounts, maps, and other material relevant to the boundary question, on which each side relied in support of its stand, and draw up a report for submission to the two Governments. This report would list the points on which there was agreement or which should be examined more fully and clarified.

It was further agreed that the officials should meet from June to September, 1960, alternately in the capitals of the two countries. The first meeting should take place in Peking and the officials would report to the two Governments by the end of September 1960. During the period of further examination of the factual material, every effort should be made by the parties to avoid friction and clashes in the border areas.

Mr. Chou's six points :—At a Press conference in New New Delhi, Mr. Chou-en-lai pointed out the following six points on which there were no common viewpoints of the two countries. These points are :

1. There exists a dispute on the boundary between the two parties ;
2. There exists between the two countries a line of actual control up to which each side exercises administrative jurisdiction ;
3. While determining the boundary between the two countries certain geographical principles such as watershed, river valley, mountain bases, etc., could be applicable equally to all sectors of the boundary ;
4. A settlement of the boundary question between the two countries should take into account the national feelings of the two peoples for the Himalayas and the Karakorum mountains.
5. Pending settlement of the boundary question between the two countries through discussions, both sides should keep to the line of actual control and should not put forward territorial claims as preconditions but individual adjustments may be made ; and
6. In order to ensure tranquility on the border so as to facilitate the discussions, both sides should continue to refrain from patrolling along all sectors of the boundary.

Mr. Chou-en-lai said that in his talks with Mr. Nehru and other Indian leaders, the latter did not raise that kind of question, that is, about Chinese aggression on India. That is, the Indian leaders did not say to documents, records, accounts, maps, and other materials relevant to the Chinese aggression on India. He said that there were disputes with regard to both eastern and western sectors, but as regards the middle sector, the dispute was rather small.

As regards Longju, the Chinese Prime Minister said that according to the so-called McMahon line on which the Indian Government placed its case, Longju was north of the line. China had also historical documents to prove that.

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Chinese Note placed before Parliament :—China's reply to India's comprehensive Note on the border dispute, placed before Parliament on April 11, 1960, is a complete rejection of the Indian stand. The Note reiterates the Chinese contention that the entire Sino-Indian boundary has not been formally delimited and that there is no boundary treaty or agreement between the two countries. It also rejects the Indian claim that the entire Sino-Indian boundary runs along the main watersheds and that, according to international usage, a customary boundary which follows such unchanging natural features stands defined and does not require normal definition again by the two sides.

The Note reiterates that China does not recognise the McMahon Line. It also rejects the Indian contention that since neither side asked for a discussion of the boundary question in 1954—Sino-Indian negotiations, it proves that no boundary question remained between the two countries. The Note maintains that the Chinese Government is fully justified in contending that the two Governments should conduct overall negotiations and reach agreement on the boundary question.

About Ladak, the Chinese Note says that the Government of India has failed to produce any weighty piece of evidence to prove that it (Ladak) does not belong to China. "In particular, the Indian Government has so far failed to give any explanations to extraordinary thing, that Indian Government, which claims to have exercised jurisdiction and been sending personnel to carry out regular patrols in this area, should have for a long time been totally unaware of the fact that since 1950 Chinese personnel and supplies have been busily travelling between Sinkiang and Tibet through this area and a road has been built across it." The Note describes as untenable the reasons advanced by the Government of India to prove that the entire area south of the McMahon Line comprising the three parts of Monyul, Loyul and lower Tsayul did not belong to China.

Simla Convention :—About the Simla Convention of 1914 the Note rejects the Indian contention that the local Government of Tibet had the right to conclude treaties on its own. It contends that China had full sovereignty over Tibet and the local authority in Tibet had no right to enter into talks and conclude treaties on its own with foreign countries. Even if they were done, they were illegal and null and void.

As for the secret letters regarding the McMahon Line exchanged between the British representative and the representative of the local authority in Tibet at the time of the Simla conference, the Note says they were exchanged behind the back of the Chinese Central Government and kept secret for a long time.

Moreover, the Note adds, "during the Simla conference, the Chinese Government already made a general statement on its non-recognition of any treaty or similar document that might be signed between Britain and

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the Tibet local authorities. Therefore, those letters exchanged are all the more illegal and null and void."

While reiterating that the entire Sino-Indian boundary had never been formally delimited and that the areas now under dispute had always belonged to China with a "considerable part of them remaining under the effective control of the Chinese Government", the Note says that it is certainly possible to bring about a settlement provided both sides adopted an attitude of mutual understanding and accommodation.

On India's and China's relations with Tibet, the Note states:

"The following may be recalled: First, no Chinese Government has ever recognised Britain's territorial claims on Tibet and Sinkiang regions of China; secondly, at the Simla conference and afterwards, the Chinese Government explicitly declared its non-recognition of any treaty or similar document that might then or thereafter be signed between Britain and the Tibet local authorities; thirdly, the Chinese Government and the Tibet local authorities repeatedly lodged protests and made representations against Britain's past unlawful acts of violating the Sino-Indian traditional customary line and seizing Chinese territory; fourthly, since the founding of the People's Republic of China, the Chinese Government has also clearly stated to the Indian Government that there exists between China and India the question of undelimited boundary and that China has always taken the stand of non-recognition of the so-called McMahon Line."

The Chinese view is that India should eventually accept the Chinese position in Ladakh in return of the Chinese acceptance of the Indian standpoint in the eastern sector. But India is not agreeable to barter Ladak for NEFA.

India's views:—On 26th April, 1960, Mr. Nehru informed the Lok Sabha that his discussion with Mr. Chou-En-Lai on the border issue had come up against "the rock of entirely different sets of facts." The basic difference, Mr. Nehru said, was that while the Chinese claimed that they had been in "constructive and actual" occupation of the disputed area in Ladakh for as long as 200 years, India had maintained that the Chinese troops had entered Indian territory only reently. He also stated that during the talks the Chinese had frequently tried to equate the problem of the eastern sector of the border with that of the western sector. They argued that India had not the right to the territory on the eastern sector to which it had advanced in the last few years.

This basic historical and factual disagreement cropped up again and again during the talks and both sides remained unconvinced. Mr. Nehru also referred to the six points mentioned by Mr. Chou-En-Lai at his Press conference and stated that the Chinese Premier had naturally given expression to his own point of view, which had not "very often coincided with our point of view." Mr. Nehru agreed that the watershed principle was important but it did not lead anywhere. The fifth point of

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Mr. Chou, according to Mr. Nehru, was not very clear. Presumably it meant that "we will not discuss anything unless our territorial claims are accepted." Mr. Nehru is not agreeable to this type of conditional approach. Mr. Chou's sixth point regarding no patrolling of the boundary was not something that was agreed to. According to Mr. Nehru, Indian patrols would be completely free to move about the border areas without clashing with Chinese patrols.

Latest Developments :—Indian and Chinese officials have concluded their talks in Rangoon on data relating to the border dispute and have signed the report, which will be submitted to the two Governments, a joint communique was issued at the end of the talks on December 12, 1960. The Communique added :

In the joint communique issued on April 25, at the conclusion of the meeting between the Premier of the State Council of the People's Republic of China and the Prime Minister of the Republic of India, it was agreed that officials of the two Governments should meet to examine, check and study the documentary materials relevant to the Sino-Indian boundary question on which each side relied in support of its stand. In pursuance of this communique the official teams of the two Governments held three sessions since June this year (1960). The third and last session commenced in Rangoon on November, 7 and concluded on December 12, when the officials of the two Governments signed the report to be submitted to the two Governments.

INDIA AND THE UNITED NATIONS

The 15th session of the United Nations General Assembly will remain memorable for the reason that many distinguished leaders of member States attended this session, such as, Pandit Nehru, Mr. Krushchev, President Tito of Yugoslavia, Fiedel Castro of Cuba, King Hussein of Jordan, and some others.

Pandit Nehru played a significant role in trying to bring about a renewal of contacts between Mr. Krushchev and President Eisenhower. His speech delivered on 3rd October 1960 at the General Assembly was marked with high idealism and was warmly appreciated by all. Pandit Nehru said :

U.N. Structure :—"During these past 15 years the United Nations has been often criticised for its structure and for some of its activities. These criticisms have often had some justification behind them. But looking at this broad picture, I think, we can definitely say that the United Nations has amply justified its existence and repeatedly prevents our recurrent crises from developing into war. It has played a great role and it is a little difficult now to think of this troubled world without the United Nations. If it has defects, those defects lie in the world situation

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itself which inevitably it mirrors. If there had been no United Nations today, our first task would be to create something of that kind. I should like, therefore, to pay my tribute to the work of the United Nations as a whole, even though I might criticise some aspect of it from time to time.

The structure of the United Nations when it started was weighed in favour of Europe and America. It did not seem to us to be fair to the countries of Asia and Africa. But we appreciate the difficulties of the situation and did not press for any changes. With the growth of the United Nations and more countries coming in, that structure today is still more unbalanced. Even so we wish to proceed slowly and with agreement and not to press for any change which would involve an immediate amendment of the Charter and the raising of heated controversies. Unfortunately, we live in a split world which is constantly coming up against the basic assumptions of the United Nations. We have to bear with this and try to move ever more forward to that conception of full co-operation between nations. That co-operation does not and must not mean any domination of one country by another, any coercion or compulsion forcing any country to line up with another country. Each country has something to give and something to take from others".

Structural Changes :—Over the question of structural changes of the UNO, Mr. Nehru observed : "It has been suggested that some structural changes should take place in the United Nations. Probably some changes would be desirable, as I have indicated above and because of the emergence of many independent countries in Asia and Africa. But any attempt at bringing about these structural changes by an amendment of the Charter at the present juncture is likely to raise many controversial questions and thus add greatly to the difficulties we face. It should be possible for us even within the terms of the Charter to adapt the United Nations machinery to meet situations as they arise, keeping in view more especially of the increasing responsibilities of the United Nations."

China's Seat :—Over admission of China to the U.N.O. Pandit Nehru said :

"For a number of years, India has brought this issue before the United Nations because we have felt that it is not only improper for this great and powerful country to remain unrepresented, but that this has an urgent bearing on all world problems and especially those of disarmament. We hold that all countries must be represented in the United Nations. We have welcomed during this session many new countries. It appears most extraordinary that any argument should be advanced to keep out China and to give the seat meant for China to those who certainly do not and cannot represent China.

"It is well known that we in India have had, and are having, a controversy with the People's Government of China over our frontier. In spite of that controversy, we continue to feel that proper representation

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of the People's Republic in UN is essential, and the longer we delay it, the more harm we cause to the UN and to consideration of the major problems we have before us. In this connection, I like to mention another country—Mongolia. When we are rightly admitting so many countries to the United Nations, why should Mongolia be left out ? What wrong has it done, what violation of the Charter ? Here are a quiet and peaceful people working hard for their progress, and it seems to me utterly wrong from any point of principle to exclude them from this great organisation. India has a special sentiment in regard to Mongolia, because our relations go back into the distant past of more than 1,500 years ago. Even now, there are many evidence of these old contacts and friendly relations between these two countries. I would earnestly recommend that Mongolia should be accepted in this world assembly of nations."

U.N.O. Role in Congo :—Pandit Nehru said as follows over the role of the United Nations in the Congo : "The situation there is a complicated and frequently changing one, and it is not always easy to know what is happening. Disruptive forces have been let loose and have been encouraged by people who do not wish well to this newly independent Congo.

"We must realise that it is essential for us to maintain the integrity of the Congo ; for if there is disintegration of the State, this is bound to lead to internal civil wars on a large scale. There will be no peace in the Congo except on the basis of the integrity of the State. Foreign countries must particularly avoid any interference in these internal affairs or the encouragement of one faction against another. The role of the United Nations is a mediatory one ; to reconcile and help in the development of the Congo is again a tremendous and long-term problem."

Pandit Nehru said that "ultimately it is the people of the Congo who will have to produce their own leadership, whether it is good or bad. Leadership cannot be imposed and any attempt to do so, will lead to conflict. The United Nations obviously cannot act all the time as policemen, nor should any outside power intervene.

India and Algeria :—Pandit Nehru pleaded for the complete independence of Algeria. India thinks that is the way to solve the Algerian dispute. Pandit Nehru said : "Once or twice, it appeared that the struggle (of the people of Algeria) might end satisfactorily in freedom by the exercise of self-determination. But that moment slipped by, and the tragedy continued. I am convinced that every country in Asia and Africa .....is deeply concerned over this matter and hope earnestly that this terrible war will end soon bringing freedom in its train for the Algerian people. This is an urgent problem to which the United Nations must address itself in order to bring about an early solution."

India and the Five-Power Resolution :—On behalf Ghana, the United Arab Republic, Indonesia, Yugoslavia and India, Pandit Nehru presented a resolution to the General Assembly at its fifteenth

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session. The resolution urged the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. to make a renewal of their contact so as to lessen the world tension. The purpose of the resolution was to avoid a deadlock in the international situation. The resolution urged the President of the U.S.A. and the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. to renew their contacts so that their "declared willingness to find solutions to outstanding problems by negotiation may be progressively implemented." The resolution was presented to the General Assembly on September 30, 1960.

Australian Amendment :—The Australian Prime Minister, Mr. Menzies, presenttd an amendment to this resolution. The five-power resolution urged a meeting between the President of the U.S.A. and the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. Mr. Menzies in his amendment called for a conference of the four leaders—that is, the President of the U.S.A., Mr. Kruschev, the Prime Minister of U.K. and President de Gaulle of France.

India's Reaction :—Mr. Nehru sharply reacted to the Australian amendment. He said in the General Assembly on October 15, 1960 that it was with considerable surprise that he had received the amendment of Australia to the five-Power resolution. It was practically not an amendment of the five-Power resolution, but altogether a new resolution. Mr. Nehru said that the five-Power resolution was an attempt to assert the right of small countries to push the big Powers, if necessary, in the desired direction. He regretted that the Australian resolution had fundamentally altered the five-Power resolution.

Australia received only five votes in the General Assembly. The U.S.A., U.K., France, Australia and Canada voted in favour of the resolution. Subsequently Argentina put an amendment to the five-Power resolution by deleting references to Mr. Eisenhower and Mr. Krushchev. The Argentine amendment was passed by the General Assembly by a bare one-vote majority.

After the General Assembly had voted the Argentine resolution, Mr. Nehru withdrew the five-Power resolution because the adoption of Argentine resolution had robbed the five-Power resolution of the sense of urgency and passionate feeling which it sought to express.

Mr. Nehru said that the Argentine amendment "took away the main purpose underlying the original resolution." By saying that the U.S.A. and the Soviet Union should renew contacts, the resolution would not be true to fact because there had been no break in contacts, "diplomatic, official or otherwise."

India and South Africa :—India has been always against the South African policy of apartheid. In May, 1960 South Africa took violent measures to suppress the racial disturbances. There was large-scale firing and other repressive measures resorted to by the Government of South Africa against the African people. In Langa there were great killings of

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the Africans. At the Security Council, on March 31, Mr. S. C. Jha, India's permanent representative at the Security Council said : "The large-scale killings and ruthless and violent suppression of African people by the Union of South Africa in pursuit of its racial policies are totally contrary to the Charter of the Nations.

On April 1, 1960, the Security Council adopted an Afro-Asian resolution calling on South African Government "to abandon its policies of apartheid and racial discrimination." The resolution was passed by the Council by nine votes to none with Britain and France abstaining. The resoluton, formulated by the Afro-Asian member States, who requested the emergency session of the Security Council to discuss the recent shooting in South Africa, in which about 80 Africans were killed, requested the U.N. Secretary-General to confer with the South African Government. He was asked to make practical arrangements "adequately to help in upholding the purposes and principles" of the U.N. Charter in the Union of South and to report to the Security Council "whenever necessary and appropriate."

The Secretary-General had talks with the representative of the South African Government in this connection. But little desirable result has resulted therefrom.

INDO-PAKISTAN RELATIONS

Outstandings :—Indo-Pakistan relations considerably improved during 1960 with the conclusion of the Indus Treaty. Other understandings with regard to settlement of border disputes and financial matters contributed towards an improvement in the relation between these two countries. An agreement for the through running of train services between East Pakistan and West Pakistan up to Rawalpindi has also been accepted by the two countries.

Railway Agreement :—The agreement on the movement of through traffic has been reached between the two countries. It is receiving the considerations of the Governments of the two countries and it is hoped that this agreement will come into effect early. India will allow two bogies each way daily between Lahore and East Pakistan. These will be attached to fast moving trains.

Pakistan will allow daily movement across the eastern wing of a number of Indian bogies. There will be one Indian bogie each way between Calcutta and Tripura. This will involve laying by Pakistan of a one or two mile track to connect up with Tripura. India will run another bogie from Calcutta to Silchar, a third between Calcutta and Amingaon and a fourth between Calcutta and Siliguri.

Pakistan already handles Indian goods traffic across East Pakistan.

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India will do the same regarding goods traffic between East and West Pakistan.

The through transit will be according to international practice and there will be agreed customs and passport formalities.

Partition Debts :—The problem of partition debts is both simple and complex. It now awaits political decisions by the two countries. The officials have worked out their respective lists. There is a wide divergence between the two. The Pakistani experts have projected their claims to an amount of Rs. 180 crores. The Indian claim on Pakistan is of the order of Rs. 300 crores.

The Implementation Committee on the movable property agreement will meet shortly. The position is that in fact there is hardly any agreement on immovable property such as land and houses. Most of these assets have been acquired or alloted by the two Governments and any adjustments will have to be on the Government-to-Government level. The problem again is one of payment as the property left behind by the Hindus is of the value of Rs. 500 crores while the property left by the Muslims is valued only at Rs. 100 crores.

There is, however, an agreement on movable property, such as transfer of lockers and safe deposits, restoration of property of joint stock companies, buried treasure, trade goods and merchandise and court deposits. Progress hitherto, however, is not very encouraging.

An agreement on trade was reached in 1960. There was discussion between Prime Minister Nehru and President Ayub Khan in September over the relations between the two countries.

Financial Talks :—The Finance Ministers of India and Pakistan met in New Delhi on November 23, 1960 to hold talks on financial matters of the two countries. The talks concluded on 25th November. The talks concerned the allocation of assets and liabilities of undivided India. The assets comprise the capital spent on commercial departments like the Railways and Posts and Telegraphs, buildings, stores, equipment, cash balances and debts due to the then Central Government. The liabilities concern obligations such as outstanding public debts, postal savings banks, provident fund deposits and pensions.

According to the Partition Council's decision, Pakistan took over physical and financial assets either lying in her territory or allocated to her. The value of such assets plus Pakistan's share of the uncovered debt at 17½ per cent. minus the value of the liabilities taken over by her, constituted Pakistan's partition debt to India, payable in 50 annual equated instalments of the principal and interest commencing from August 15, 1952.

No Payments :—The fixation of the assets and liabilities has, however, remained pending despite several stages of negotiations and none of the instalments have yet been paid by Pakistan. These questions were

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discussed last year at two meetings between the Finance Ministers and the main items remaining unsettled are evaluation and allocation of defence assets, determination of income-tax arrears at the time of partition and connected matters and the valuation of pensionary liabilities.

These incidentally are the major items and until this matter is settled, there can be no final picture, though estimates of the partition debt payable to India are of the order of Rs. 300 crores. In 1951 the then Pakistani Prime Minister claimed that Rs. 100 crores was due to Pakistan from India. This figure was repeated in the Pakistan National Assembly in 1957. Subsequently the claim was increased to Rs. 180 crores. While the officials of the two sides have been working at these problems for some time, it is now clear that what is required is a political decision at the Ministerial level.

INDUS BASIN WATER DISPUTE :—The dispute over the Indus basin waters between the two countries was outstanding for the last ten years. The World Bank played a leading role in bringing about an agreement between these two countries over the issue.

On 19th September, 1960, the Prime Minister of India and the President of Pakistan signed the Canal Waters Treaty, bringing to a happy conclusion a dispute which began shortly after partition.

Apart from the Indus Waters Treaty, two other agreements were signed in Karachi on September 19, 1960. These are international financial agreements creating an Indus Basin Development Fund of about $900 million (about Rs. 450 crores) to finance the construction of irrigation and other works in Pakistan and a $90 million (Rs. 45 crores) loan by the World Bank to Pakistan.

The participating Governments will make the contributions as grants to the Indus Development Fund. *Australia*—£A 6,965,000 ; *Canada*—$(C) 22,100,000 ; *Germany*—D. M. 126,000,000 ; *New Zealand*—£NZ 100,000 ; *United Kingdom*—£20,860,000 ; and *U.S.A.*—$ 177,000,000.

The Bias Project to be carried out by India will not be financed by the Indus Basin Development Fund. The foreign exchange cost will be met by a loan of $23 million from the World Bank. The rupee expenditure will be borne by the Government of India and by a loan of $33 million from the United States Government. The rupee expenditure will be borne by the Government of India.

The aggregate resources of the Indus Basin Development Fund in foreign exchange and in Pakistan rupees will be of the order of the equivalent of $894,000,000 (about £320 million). It will be administered by the World Bank.

The Treaty :—Under the Indus Waters Treaty signed by the two countries, the waters of the three western rivers—Indus, Jhelum and Chenab, except for essential uses in their own basins while they flow in India, are allotted to Pakistan and the waters of the three eastern rivers—

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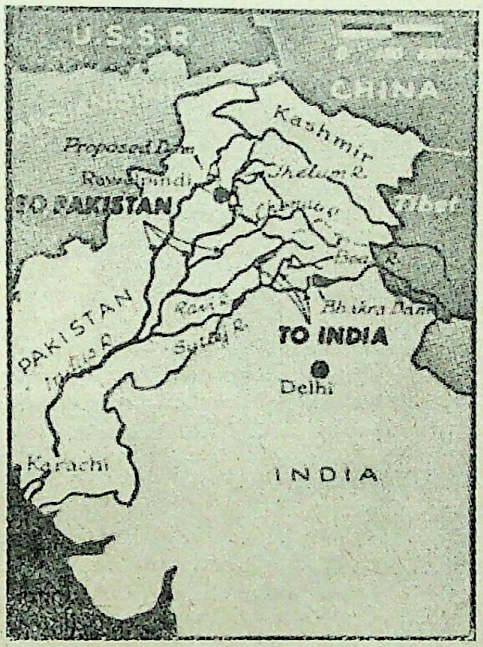
the Ravi, Beas and Sutlej, except for a transition period, during which Pakistan will build works to replace the waters received by it from these rivers—are alloted to India.

It divides the total waters of the Indus system between Pakistan and India in the proportion of 80 :20. That is 135.6 million acre feet to Pakistan and 32.8 million acre feet to India out of the total flow of 168 million acre feet. India may undertake measures for flood control and drainage in the basins of the western waters (as long as these do not adversely affect Pakistan) and use these waters for hydel generation in accordance with the criteria laid down in the treaty.



Main features :—The main features of the treaty, which is based on the World Bank's proposals of 1954, are as follows :

Division of Rivers :—The waters of Indus, Jhelum and Chenab are allotted to Pakistan, while those of Ravi, Beas and Sutlej are alloted to India. The total waters of the Indus Basin have been alloted to India and Pakistan in the ratio of 20 : 80.

Western Rivers :—Though the western rivers are alloted to Pakistan, India can use their waters in its own territories for certain specific purposes. These include :

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(a) continuation of the present irrigation of about one million acres in Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab and Himachal Pradesh ;

(b) provision of new irrigation facilities for another 70 lakh acres ;

(c) flood control and hydro-electric generation ; and

(d) storage, for various purposes, of 2.85 million acre feet of water mainly on the tributaries.

Eastern Rivers :—Though the eastern rivers are exclusively for India, India will continue giving water to Pakistan for a transition period of 10 years on a diminishing scale. This period can be extended by another three years at the most on Pakistan's request but in that case India's contribution to Pakistan's replacement works will be decreased proportionately.

India will also build a new dam on the Beas to provide irrigation in the Punjab and Rajasthan.

Works in Pakistan :—Pakistan will undertake a system of replacement and development works comprising reservoirs, link canals, tubewells, drainage and hydro-electric installations. India will make a contribution of Rs. 83 crores towards the cost of these replacements. Pakistan is further getting sums totalling Rs. 333 crores from U.S.A., U.K., Canada, West Germany, Australia, New Zealand and the World Bank for this project.

Permanent Indus Commission :—India and Pakistan will provide one Commissioner each to form a permanent Indus Commission which will look into any differences arising in the implementation of the Treaty.

Dispute :—A neutral expert may be called to settle technical disputes, while for major issues there will be a court of arbitration.

Future Co-operation :—The Treaty provides for future co-operation in some specific works like flood control and drainage works which may be built by one party in the territory of the other, the cost to be paid by the party to benefit from such work.

Termination of 1948 Agreement :—The Treaty terminates the Indo-Pakistani Waters Agreement of 1948. Pakistan has agreed to pay to India all "undisputed" water dues amounting to Rs. 53 lakhs. Pakistan has further agreed to pay Rs. 62 lakhs as final settlement of "disputed" charges. These sums will be set off against the proposed Indian aid of Rs. 33 crores to Pakistan.

EVACUEE PROPERTY :—Senior officials of India and Pakistan who met in New Delhi on November 29, 1960, to discuss the outstanding issues pertaining to evacuee property, are understood to have deferred consideration of some important items to a further meeting. The move for postponment is believed to have come from the Pakistani team, which presumably desired more time to study the implications of these issues. It was, however, indicated that the next meeting would be held soon. Pakistan sought the return of jewellery of Muslim evacuees from the

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former PEPSU area that they left behind. India has urged the return of jewellery of the Hindus of Bahawalpur State, which they had to abandon. It was suggested that the question be settled on a reciprocal basis.

India is also stated to have been willing to provide the revenue records pertaining to some areas in U.P., which Pakistan requires in order to settle the claims of Muslim evacuees from there. The implementation committees, as the two teams are called, were set up in 1955 to review the working of the agreement arrived at between the Rehabilitation Ministers of the two countries earlier this year. Despite a provision that the committees should meet once every two months, their discussions have been infrequent. In fact they have met only four times so far. The last meeting was held in April, 1958.

Consideration of a Pakistani suggestion regarding transfer of bank accounts of Muslims from Punjab was also deferred.

FACILITIES FOR INDIAN VISITORS :—On December 1, 1960, the Presidential Cabinet approved the Indo-Pakistani agreement for through railway passenger and goods traffic between East and West Pakistan across India and between Assam and West Bengal across East Pakistan.

After the Indian Government has approved of the agreement, steps will be taken for its implementation. The agreement is expected to come into force from April 1961. The Pakistani Government in a Press Note also announced a number of facilities that are to be accorded to Indian nationals visiting Pakistan.

"C" category visa holders will now be accorded tourist treatment and will no longer be required to report their movement within the country. Similarly, people visiting Pakistan for not more than 15 days will be exempted from obtaining permits. The Press Note said : "In order to make travel in Pakistan by citizens of India easier, the Government of Pakistan has decided to remove some of the restrictions which apply to them at present. In future Indian citizens will be subject to the Registration of Foreigners Rules, 1939, and will be treated as other foreigners in Pakistan. The following classes of visa holders from India will henceforth be entitled to certain exemptions from these rules :

"(A) Citizens of India holding A, D or in the case of a transport worker, E category visas.

"(B) Citizens of India visiting Pakistan on the "C" category visa shall be accorded facilities admissible to tourists under the Registration of Foreigners Rules. These facilities would exempt them from reporting their movement within the country.

The following classes of Indian citizens have also been exempted from obtaining residential permits during their stay in Pakistan—(1) Persons holding A category visas ; (b) persons holding D category visas ; (3) transport workers holding "E" category visas ; (4) persons visiting Pakistan for a period not exceeding 15 days (if the period of stay is extended more

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than 15 days, residential permit will become necessary) ; and (5) persons granted gratis or courtesy visits.

Indian citizens will now be issued only a single residential permit, instead of two as in the past, by the civil authority of the first of several places for which the visa is valid. The registration officer at the check-post of entry will make an endorsement on the registration form and state therein the period within which the journey to the destination should be completed. He, however, will not issue a residential permit. In order to save time and to facilitate quick disposal at the checkpost of entry, visa holders could previously fill in the registration forms except columns 12 and 13, and present them to the officer in charge at the checkpost. Registration forms will be available for sale at all visa offices.

INDIAN AFFAIRS

I. NAGALAND

India has decided to establish a new State of Nagaland. Prime Minister announced in the Lok Sabha on 1st August, 1960, that the Central Government had acceded to the demand of the Naga people for their own separate State within the Indian Union.

The new State will be called *Nagaland* and will comprise the territory of the existing Naga Hills and Tuensang area on the Burmese border, which has been under the administration of the Central Government since November, 1957. Nagaland will be the sixteenth and smallest State in the Indian Union, with an area of about 6,000 square miles and a population of between 350,000 and 400,000. There will be a Legislative Assembly and a Council of Ministers. The Governor of Assam will act as Governor of Nagaland, and the jurisdiction of the Assam High Court over the area comprising the new State will remain unchanged. Apart from certain safeguards regarding the religious and social practices of the Nagas, customary laws and procedure, and the ownership and transfer of land, the existing Indian law relating to the administration of civil and criminal justice will remain in force.

There will be a transitional period during which an interim body will be constituted with representatives from every Naga tribe to assist and advise the Governor in the administration of the area.

The proposed establishment of the new State is the result of an arrangement reached in July between Mr. Nehru and a delegation of 15 Naga leaders led by Dr. Imkongliba Ao, the President of the Naga People's Convention. Since 1954 there has been sporadic fighting in the Naga Hills area of Assam between the Indian Army and irreconcilable Naga rebels who have been agitating under the leadership of Mr. A. Z. Phizo for a sovereign and independent State of Nagaland. It is estimated that there are still 2,000 rebels under arms. In his statement to the Lok Sabha,

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Mr. Nehru emphasised that there could be no question of independence for the Nagas, and the Indian Government would continue to deal firmly with the hostile elements.

Mr. Phizo fled to England with the help of a false passport. India did not demand extradition of Mr. Phizo.

In August, 1957 a Convention of Naga Peoples was held in Kohima to demand a separate Naga State within India. In May, 1958, the second Convention of Naga People was held. The third Convention was held in October, 1959. The Naga people comprise various tribal groups spread over an area of 6,236 square miles.

II. TWO NEW STATES INAUGURATED

With effect from May 1, 1960 two new States were born in India. These are—Gujarat and Maharasthra. They have been carved out of the former Bombay State.

Gujarat :—The new State of Gujarat comprises what is at present known as Saurashtra, Kutch and the other Gujarati speaking areas of the west coast, north of Bombay. Gujarat is a small State. It covers an area of 72,137 square miles with a population of 16.26 million. The State consists of 17 districts of the former Bombay State and has 18,533 villages and 240 cities and towns. In the predominantly agricultural economy of the State, the occupational break-up of the population shows that 57.5 per cent. of the people are engaged in agriculture, 15.3 in non-agricultural production, 8.5 in business and trade, 1.9 in transport and 16.8 in miscellaneous occupations.

About 55.3 per cent. of the total land area of about 44,152,400 acres is being cultivated while about 2.7 per cent. of the cultivable waste land offers comparatively little possibility of extending the area under cultivation. About 59 per cent. of the cultivated area is under food crops and 41 per cent. of the area under cash crops like cotton, oilseeds, and tobacco. Gujarat is deficit in foodgrains production. The textile industry is the oldest and most organised industry in the region.

Maharashtra :—The State of Maharashtra, which for the first time in history brings together all Marathi-speaking people in a separate unit, forms a major part of the peninsular India on the western side. It is bounded by the Arabian Sea in the west ; Gujarat in the north-west ; Madhya Pradesh in the north, Andhra Pradesh in the south-east and Mysore and Goa in the south. It has a total area of 1,18,903 square miles, which is a little more than 10 per cent. of the area of the Indian Union. Historically, the Western Maharashtra, Vidharva and Marathwada, are the three components of the State. Administratively, the State is divided into twenty-six districts—West Khandesh, East Khandesh, Nasik, Ahmednagar, Poona, North Satara, South Satara, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Greater Bombay, Thana, Kolaba and Ratnagiri (Western Maharasthra) ; Nagpur,

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Akola, Amaravati, Yeotmal, Wardha, Buldana, Chanda and Bhandara (Vidharva); Aurangabad, Parbhani, Bhir, Osmanabad and Nanded (Marathwada).

According to the 1951 census, the population of the Maharasthra State is 3,21,68,614 which is slightly more than 9 per cent. of the population of the Indian Union. This population lives in 384 towns and 34,746 villages. The density of population in the State is 271 per square mile as against 303 in the Indian Union. The agricultural classes constitute 64.06 per cent. of the population. The percentage of literacy in the Maharashtra State is 20.96 as against 16.61 in the Indian Union.

III. THIRD FINANCE COMMISSION

On 2nd December, 1960 it was announced in the Lok Sabha that Mr. Ashok Kumar Chanda, former Comptroller and Auditor-General of India, will head the third Finance Commission set up by the middle of December, 1960. The members of the Commission are: Mr. P. Gobinda Menon, former Chief Minister of Kerala; Mr. Dwijendra Nath Roy, retired Judge of Allahabad High Court; Prof. M. V. Mathur, head of the Department of Economics and Public Administration, University of Rajasthan and Mr. G. R. Kamat (member-secretary).

Terms of Reference:—The terms of reference of the Commission would include certain other matters besides the recommendations which it would be required to make under Article 280 of the Constitution. The Commission will be asked to make recommendations in regard to the States which were in need of assistance by way of grants in aid of their revenues under Article 275 and the sums to be paid to them having regard, among other considerations, to (1) the requirements of the Third Plan and (2) the efforts made by those States to raise additional revenues from the sources available to them. Other terms of reference are: (1) the principles which should govern the distribution under Article 269 of the Constitution, the net proceeds in any financial year of estate duty in respect of property other than agricultural land, levied by the Government of India in the States within which such duty is leviable; (2) the principles which should govern the distribution of the net proceeds of the additional excise duties levied on mill-made textiles, sugar and tobacco in replacement of the sales tax levied by the State Governments formerly amongst the States and the amount which should be assured to the States as the income derived by them from the levy of sales taxes on these commodities in 1956-57; and (3) the principles which should govern the distribution, under Article 269 of the Constitution, of the net proceeds in any financial year of the tax on railway fares.

The Commission would in each case, make its recommendations for the four years 1962-63 to 1965-66.

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IV. ELECTIONS IN KERALA

At elections held in Kerala on 1st February, 1960, the anti-Communist Democratic Alliance won 94 of the 126 seats. From the general election in February-March 1957 until July 1959, when the President of India took over the administration of Kerala, the State had been under a Communist Ministry supported by slender majority in the State Assembly. The composition of the new Assembly (with comparative figures for 1957 in brackets) is as follows :

Congress ..	.. 63 (42)	Communists & supporters	29 (64)
Praja Socialists ..	.. 20 (9)	Others ..	.. 3 (3)
Moslem League	.. 11 (8)		

Although they were decisively defeated, the Communists and their supporters increased their proportion of the total poll from 40 to 42.5 per cent. The total poll was 85 per cent. of the electorate, as compared to 66 per cent. in 1957.

V. INDIA'S SECOND NUCLEAR REACTOR

On 10th July, 1960, India's second nuclear reactor began operating at the Atomic Energy Commission's research establishment at Trombay, near Bombay. The reactor has a 40 MW heat output ; it uses natural uranium for fuel and heavy water as a moderator, and is cooled by ordinary water. The reactor provides facilities for fundamental research into nuclear energy problems. It will also be one of the largest producers of radio-active isotopes in the world, capable of producing enough isotopes to meet India's requirements and to have a margin for exports.

Canada has helped India in building the reactor, the design of which is based on the NRX reactor of Atomic Energy of Canada Ltd. at Chalk River in Canada. It is known as the Canada-India reactor. The cost of the project is estimated at Rs. 100 million (£ 7.5 million) ; Canada is paying for the design of the project and for imported equipment, and India is paying the domestic costs of construction.

India's first research reactor, *Apsara,* went into operation at Trombay in 1956 and *Zerlina,* the third reactor, has begun to operate by the beginning of 1961.

VI. DEMAND FOR HILL STATE

The third All Party Hill Leaders' Conference, which concluded its three-day deliberations at Haflong on November 18, 1960, adopted a plan for the creation of Eastern Frontier State. Besides mentioning the territories of the new State, the plan gives details of its administrative set-up.

The plan says that the State will have a Governor and a unicameral Legislative Assembly which shall consist of not less than 60 members chosen by direct election. The plan provides that the legitimate interests

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of non-tribals living in the State, including their representation in the Legislature, shall be given due consideration.

The plan suggests that the State shall be entitled to send one member from each Autonomous District and two members from NEFA to the Lok Sabha and three members to the Rajya Sabha. The plan says that subject to the provisions of the Sixth Schedule to the Constitution, the administration of the Autonomous Districts and Regions shall vest in the respective District or Regional Council.

It suggests amendment of the Sixth Schedule and says that the administration of NEFA shall continue to be carried on by the President of India through the Governor of the State. The Plan suggests that the various safeguards and privileges relating to the Scheduled Tribes as provided in the Constitution shall continue. The plan suggests the inclusion of Nowgong in addition to portions of Kamrup, Goalpara and Cachar districts, which should form part of the new State.

VII. INTER-STATE RIVER WATERS

On the controversial question of the distribution of inter-State river waters, to which the Centre has recently devoted much attention, the view at the highest level seems to be that in developing a river's resources the basin should be regarded as one unit, irrespective of the boundaries of the States which may comprise it.

The attention of the authorities in New Delhi was focussed on this issue by the dispute over the Krishna and Godavari waters, in which the Maharashtra, Andhra, Mysore and Orissa Governments have expressed strong views and taken up rigid stands. Since some of the States have questioned the validity of the data on which the existing agreement in regard to the two rivers is based, an *ad hoc* committee of technical experts may re-examine the facts. The Centre's firm advice to the four States should be available before the end of the year.

This is the first major dispute and the lines along which it is settled will inevitably set the pattern for resolving similar disputes in the future. It is felt that a river's water should be utilized for the maximum good of the largest number of people, irrespective of the boundaries of the States through which it flows. In distributing its benefits, neither the size of the catchment area falling within the different States nor their population should be important considerations.

As regards development of power, the overriding consideration should be the financial and technical feasibility of a scheme. At present two Acts deal with inter-State river disputes. Both empower the Centre to refer a dispute to arbitration by a judge to be appointed by the Chief Justice of India.

VIII. PRESIDENT'S ORDER ON OFFICIAL LANGUAGE

On April 29, 1960, the Home Minister Pandit Pant presented to Parliament the Presidential Order relating to the official language. The Order

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directs the Ministry of Home Affairs to prepare and implement a programme of preparatory measures to facilitate the progressive use of Hindi in the Union administration.

The order makes no specific reference either to the deadline put in the Constitution for a switch-over from English to Hindi or to Mr. Nehru's offer in Parliament in 1959 that English would become the associate official language after 1965. The extent to which Hindi can be used in addition to English, the order says, will depend largely on the effectiveness of the preparatory measures. "This plan for the actual use of Hindi, in addition to English, will need to be reviewed and adjusted from time to time in the light of experience", it adds.

There is, however, an oblique reference to Mr. Nehru's offer. The preamble of the Order records that the Prime Minister made a speech in the Lok Sabha on September 4, 1959 indicating broadly the approach of the Government to the official language question. It was in this speech that Mr. Nehru had said that English may continue as an associate or additional language in the Central sphere after 1965. Presumably, a direct statement about the status of English after 1965 was not made in the order, because it was felt that in the strict legal and constituional sense the issue was beyond the present order's scope and that it may appropriately be dealt with by Parliament. The document is unambiguous on all aspects of the language question.

The Home Ministry has been asked to take steps in consultation with the Union Public Service Commission for the introduction, after some time, of Hindi as an alternative medium at examinations for recruitment to all-India and higher Central services. The suggestion that various regional languages be also introduced as alternative media has been rejected, because it was liable to lead to serious difficulties.

Parliamentary legislation, it is ordered, may continue to be in English but an authorized translation should be provided in Hindi.

Language of Courts :—The President has accepted in principle the recommendation of the Official Language Commission that the Supreme Court should eventually function in Hindi. Action, it is stated, will be required only when the time comes for the change-over. In respect of the language of the High Courts, the Law Ministry has been directed to undertake in due course and with the previous consent of the President necessary legislation to provide for the optional use of Hindi and other official languages of the States for purposes of judgments, decrees and orders.

Another important decision contained in the Order is to make "in service training in Hindi obligatory for Central Government employees who are less than 45 years of age." This rule will not apply to employees below Class III, industrial establishments and work-charged staff. Nor will any penalty be imposed on anyone for failure to attain the prescribed standard.

In regard to the languages which may be used in examinations for

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entrance to defence training establishments, the President has accepted the view of the Parliamentary Committee which studied the language question last year. The Defence Ministry has been directed to take necessary measures to introduce Hindi as an alternative medium for the entrance examination and appoint an expert committee to examine the question of introduction of regional languages as media "without any quoted system."

In the sphere of law, the order endorses the main recommendations of the Parliamentary Committee regarding preparation of a standard lexicon, re-enactment of the statute book in Hindi in the States and at the Centre and appointment of a standing commission to evolve a legal terminology.

The order of the President says : "Necessary action may be taken by Ministry of Home Affairs for the preparation and implementation of a plan or programme which will be concerned with preparatory measures for facilitating the progressive use of Hindi in the Union administration, and for promoting the use of Hindi in addition to English for the various purposes of the Union, as provided in Clause (2) of Article 343 of the Constitution. The extent to which Hindi can be used in addition to English will depend largely on the effectiveness of the preparatory measures. The plan for the actual use of Hindi, in addition to English, will need to be reviewed and adjusted from time to time in the light of experience." In the field of science and technology, the order says, the terms in international use should be adopted with the minimum change, that is, the base words should be those at present in use in international terminology, although the derivatives may be Indianized to the extent necessary.

IX. RECONSTRUCTION OF DANDAKARANYA ADMINISTRATION

For some time there was controversy and conflict in the Dandakaranya administration. Substantial concessions were, however, made to West Bengal's point of view in its dispute with the Centre on the Dandakaranya issue. This was announced on June 17, 1960, in a Press Note released by the Prime Minister's Secretariat following Nehru-Roy meeting. The Dandakaranya Development Authority is being reconstituted. It has now a full-time Chairman and a considerable measure of autonomy and annual plans as well as its own budget.

Secondly, the families that are sent to Dandakaranya will be given shelter and work until they are rehabilitated. This work is likely to be subsidized during the initial period. The official release indicates that within 12 to 15 months the Union Rehabilitation Ministry will be closed down and the remaining rehabilitation work given to other Central Ministries or to the West Bengal Government.

It has also been agreed that there should be the fullest consultation and co-operation between the Centre and the State Government regarding all matters concerning the rehabilitation of displaced persons and the

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Dandakaranya scheme. To ensure this, the West Bengal Chief Minister has been invited to attend all meetings of the Union Cabinet's rehabilitation committee.

Besides a fulltime Chairman, the reconstituted DDA will consist of the Chief Secretaries of Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and West Bengal; the Chief Administrator; a representative of the Union Home Ministry (to safeguard the interests of the tribal population); and a representative of the Union Rehabilitation Ministry.

While the scheme's initial function will be to rehabilitate East Pakistan refugees, other displaced persons will later be eligible for rehabilitation. In an effort to build up "integrated communities", skilled workers and artisans will later be induced to settle down in Dandakaranya.

The Press Note says: "The Dandakaranya authority should be given a considerable measure of autonomy and should be asked to prepare a general five-year plan, and a more specific plan for the year. It will prepare its own budget, which will then have to be approved by the Government of India. The Authority will be entitled to make minor adjustments in the budget within the major allocations.

"The Dandakaranya scheme will continue to develop in a big way for many years to come. To begin with, however, its chief functions will be to rehabilitate displaced persons from East Pakistan. For this, first priority will be given to the displaced persons at present in camps in West Bengal. Later, other displaced persons will also be considered for further rehabilitation.

"The attempt will be to build up integrated communities, which means not only agriculturists, but skilled workers and artisans only. Displaced families sent to Dandakaranya will be provided with shelter, certain facilities and work, pending full rehabilitation. During the initial period their work may be subsidized. All those who are sent to Dandakaranya will have the assurance of being rehabilitated there. It is hoped that the major part of the work of the Ministry of Rehabilitation will be over within a period of 12 to 15 months. Some part may still remain. This can be distributed to other Ministries of the Government of India, or to the West Bengal Government, so that the Ministry of Rehabilitation as such could be closed.

"It was agreed that there should be the fullest consultation and co-operation between the Central Government and the West Bengal Government in all matters concerning rehabilitation of displaced persons and the Dandakaranya scheme. The Chief Minister of West Bengal was invited to attend all meetings of the rehabilitation committee of the Union Cabinet."

X. MINISTERIAL TANGLE IN UTTAR PRADESH

Political crisis developed in the Uttar Pradesh between the former Chief Minister Dr. Sampurnanand and Mr. C. B. Gupta. After long-drawn controversy, Dr. Sampurnanand resigned as the Chief Minister. After his

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resignation, Mr. C. B. Gupta was elected unopposed as leader of the Congress Legislature Party. He has now become also the Chief Minister of the U.P. Nineteen out of 26 members of Dr. Sampurnanand's Ministry have pledged themselves not to join the new Ministry under Mr. C. B. Gupta. They include all members of his Cabinet, except Mr. Hukum Singh. A letter signed by them protested against interference in their right to elect a leader freely, and stated that they were abstaining from the election of the leader of the Congress Legislature Party as not to embarass the Prime Minister and the other members of the High Command. It may be recalled that Pandit Nehru advised Dr. Sampurnanand to resign.

XI. TRANSFER OF BERUBARI

Under the Nehru-Noon Agreement, the transfer of Berubari Union to Pakistan has raised a great controversy in India. On December 16, 1960 the Lok Sabha gave Mr. Nehru leave to introduce the two controversial Bills relating to Berubari after a procedural wrangle lasting over two hours. Berubari is a part of the Indian Union.

An agreement was reached between the Prime Minister of India, Mr. Nehru and the then Prime Minister of Pakistan, Sir Feroze Khan Noon, in respect of some Indo-Pakistan disputes in September, 1958 and accordingly an agreement was signed by Mr. M. J. Desai, Commonwealth Secretary, Government of India and Mr. M. S. A. Baig, Foreign Secretary, Government of Pakistan. Under this agreement, popularly known as the Nehru-Noon agreement, it was proposed that half of Berubari Union, in the district of Jalpaiguri, West Bengal, would go to Pakistan. The relevant portion of the agreement is as follows : "2(3) Berubari Union No. 12. This will be so divided as to give the half the area to Pakistan, the other half adjacent to India being retained by India. The division of Berubari Union No. 12 will be horizontal, starting from the north-east corner of Debiganj thana."

Protest against transfer :—It was decided that actual transfer would take place before January 30, 1959. But in the meantime Calcutta High Court, on a petition under 226 of the Constitution, issued injunction on the Union of India and the State of West Bengal restraining them from giving effect to the proposed transfer. The transfer has since been delayed. Throughout the country, protests were made against the transfer move. The protest was very strong in West Bengal, the State actually affected by the proposal, and resolutions were passed against it at an all-Bengal convention in Calcutta and also at a People's Convention held at Manickganj (Berubari). Both Houses of West Bengal State Legislature passed unanimous resolution expressing the opinion that "Berubari should remain a part of the territory of the Union of India."

The opinion was expressed by some eminent jurists of the country that any cession of Indian territory to a foreign State would be against the

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Constitution of India and the President of India was requested to refer, under Article 143 of the Constitution, the matter of Berubari to the Supreme Court for its opinion.

Supreme Court's Opinion :—After hearing the arguments of different parties, including that of the Union of India, the Supreme Court held that the Nehru-Noon agreement for the transfer of Berubari amounted to cession of Indian territory in favour of Pakistan. Therefore, the implementation of that agreement would involve the alteration of the content of Article 1 of the Constitution and its consequential amendment of the relevant part of the first schedule to the Constitution.

The Supreme Court said : "The diminution of the area of any State to which Article 3(c) refers postulates that the area diminished from the State in question should and must continue to be a part of the territory of India ; it may increase the area of any other State or may be dealt with in any other manner authorised either by Article 3 or other relevant provisions of the Constitution ; but it would not cease to be a part of national territory. Therefore, the power to cede national territory in favour of a foreign State cannot be read in Article 3(c) by implication." That is, the cession of Berubari would require an amendment of Article 3 of the Constitution thereby enabling Parliament to cede the territory.

Some Facts about Berubari :—Berubari Union, under Jalpaiguri P.S., West Bengal is an integral part of the territory of the Union of India, and it has all along been under the possession of West Bengal and India since the partition of the country in 1947. The total area of this Union is about 15 square miles with a total population of about 12 thousand people. Before partition, the population was only 4 thousand, and since then about 8 thousand refugees from East Bengal settled themselves in this area. They are all Indian citizens who enjoyed and exercised rights as such including the Fundamental rights. Rates and taxes have been paid by the citizens to public authorities of the Indian Union. One Post Office and two Police outposts are functioning here. There is one junior high school, and a number of primary schools in the Union.

That Berubari Union constitutes an integral part of India was not disputed by Pakistan. At the time of partition of the country in 1947, the Government of India and Pakistan took possession of the areas allotted to the two dominions under the Radcliffe Award. The area of No. 12 South Berubari Union was made over to the Government of India and it has been under uninterrupted possession of the Government of West Bengal as an integral part of the territory of India.

After the division of the country on the basis of Radcliffe Award, many boundary disputes arose between India and Pakistan which led to the appointment of an international tribunal, that is, Bagge Tribunal. Pakistan never claimed this territory and there was no reference regarding Berubari

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to that tribunal. Even after the Bagge Tribunal's award, which did not mention Berubari, there was no protest by Pakistan against this Tribunal's award. Therefore, it is clear that Pakistan accepted the position that it had no case with regard to this area.

The Chief Minister of West Bengal said that the West Bengal Government was not consulted while the decision to transfer this area to Pakistan was taken under the Nehru-Noon agreement. Prime Minister Nehru, however, denied this charge and said that the West Bengal Government was fully consulted on this issue.

On November 30, 1960, the Chief Minister of West Bengal sponsored a motion in the West Bengal Assembly saying that the House was of opinion that the Transfer Bill was invalid and unconstitutional and cited seven grounds in support of his contention. Dr. Roy's motion said : "Whereas the Acquired Territories (Merger) Bill has been referred by the President to the Legislature for its view thereon, "Now therefore, be it resolved that the House is of the opinion that the Bill is invalid and unconstitutional ....."

But on 12th December the Chief Minister declared in the West Bengal Assembly that, although he thought Berubari should remain in India, he had to support the Prime Minister in his demand for the ratification of his agreement with Pakistan. "After all", the Chief Minister said, "it is our Prime Minister who has entered into this international agreement. We on this side of the House cannot possibly take any step which may be regarded by the outside world as lowering his dignity." The Opposition in the West Bengal Legislative Assembly severely criticised the Congress Government in transferring Berubari to Pakistan .The Assembly was prorogued by Governor on 14th August. Similarly, the State Legislative Council was also prorogued. In West Bengal a *Hartal* was observed on 20th December as a mark of protest against the transfer of Berubari.

Berubari Bills Passed :—Against a stiff opposition, the Lok Sabha on 20th December passed the Constitution (Ninth Amendment) Bill by 328 votes to 47. This is the Berubari Bill. The Prime Minister of India made the important admission that he was not aware of the human aspect of the problem involved in Berubari's division when signing the agreement with Pakistan. On learning of this problem, he had informally approached Pakistan for an alternative exchange of territory for Berubari, but this had proved unsuccessful.

Mr. Nehru disclosed that in "the last actual decision" on Berubari's division, the issue had not been formally referred to West Bengal, although the Central Cabinet was kept informed and the issue was repeatedly discussed with West Bengal's representatives over eight years right up to the time of the agreement. The Congress Members of the Lok Sabha from West Bengal supported the Prime Minister saying that his commitment must be honoured. They, however, stressed the speedy rehabilitation for

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the people of Berubari, although there was no alternative but to endorse the agreement.

With the solitary exception of the Union Law Minister, Mr. Asoke Kumar Sen, all the Congress members from West Bengal voted for the Berubari Bills in the Lok Sabha on 20th December. The Law Minister who was in the House in the morning, was absent in the afternoon, when voting on the Constitution (Ninth Amendment) Bill took place. No division was called on the Merger Bill which was adopted by a voice vote. Ministerial abstention of this nature is so rare that the Law Minister's absence in the House was immediately taken note of, and it became subject of common comment in the lobbies.

It was recalled that there was only one precedent in the matter. The late Sir N. N. Sircar, as Law Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council, had declined to vote for Communal Award.

Net Result :—The net result of exchange under the Nehru-Noon Agreement is as follows :—

Pakistan gets : Half of Berubari (4.37 sq. miles) plus 119 Indian enclaves (26.8 sq. miles) plus readjustment of boundaries between 24-Parganas and Jessore and Khulna (0.429 sq. miles). Total—31.599 sq. miles.

West Bengal gets : 74 Pakistan enclaves (8.4 sq. miles). Total —8.4 sq. miles.

XII. ASSAM RIOTS

In the month of July 1960 violent riots broke out in Assam against the Bengalee people there on the issue of making Assamese the language of the State of Assam. But the linguistic differences were a symptom, not the primary cause, of the riots which overtook Assam in July. There was an organised movement, which had its roots in political manoeuvre by different political parties. In spite of their political differences they worked hand and glove for carrying out their organised plan.

Nearly fifty Bengalees, if not more, lost their lives. Hundreds of Bengalee homes were burnt or otherwise destroyed. The Bengalee people were seriously beaten, injured and their shops were looted and burnt. The Government machinery was no inefficient and inadequate that the authorities did not take proper precaution. Later on it transpired that not only political parties, but also members of the Government took part in it.

The action was well planned by the rioters. Invariably a mob of rioters would move to an isolated community, in pre-arranged buses, and attack them with faces covered with handerchiefs. Though language issue was used, but before the trouble, Bengali-speaking people in numerous districts had passed resolutions supporting Assamese. Economic issues were used to mislead and provoke the students.

The Chaliha administration was very weak. At places members of the District Administration took little counter-action. In some places, junior civil servants were completely inactive and passive.

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Those who were sent from Delhi for investigation wert initially misled by local leaders, and attempts were made to prevent them from seeing places where namage had occurred and from meeting people who had suffered.

As a result of linguistic fanaticism and riots, nearly sixty thousand Bengalee people came to West Bengal as refugees. Of these, only 6 per cent have gone back to Assam. The Government of India appointed a Committee of Parliament to enquire into the cause of the Assam riots. Regarding the language problem, which started the disturbances, the Parliamentary delegation has expressed its inability to suggest a solution but has commended the move for a Round Table Conference of all linguistic groups to evolve an agreed formula.

Pant Formula :—Pandit Pant, Union Home Minister, went to Shillong on the invitation of the State Government and he suggested the following formula with regard to the language impasse. The formula was as follows :

(1) Hindi and Assamese will be the official languages of Assam and English will continue till it is replaced by Hindi ;
(2) Assamese will be official language at the district levels in in the six districts of Brahmaputra Valley ;
(3) Bengali will be the official language in the district of Cachar at district level ;
(4) In the autonomous Hill Districts, the language, as each District Council decides for its region, will be the official language ;
(5) English will continue till it is replaced by Hindi in the Secretariat and in Heads of Departments, and correspondence will be in English.

Pant Formula Changed :—The very day Pandit Pant left Shillong, the text of the formula was changed by the Assam Government, On October 10, the bilingual formula Bill with Assamese and English as State languages was introduced. Seven Congress members from Cachar abstained from attending the session. In the meantime a special meeting of the Assam Provincial Congress Committee was held at Shillong on October 14. In that meeting a resolution was adopted to the effect that only Assamese would be the sole official language of Assam. Cachar members and Hill members appealed to the Assam Congress not to make Assamese the sole language of Assam. But the appeal was of no effect.

Accordingly, an amened resolution was passed in the Assembly in the form of Official Language Bill declaring Assamese the sole official language of the State.

On December 17, the Governor of Assam gave his assent to the Assam Official Language Bill, 1960, declaring Assamese as the official language of the State. The Bill provides that "Assamese shall be used for all or any of the official purposes of the State of Assam." The Bill also provides that English will continue to be used in Government offices till such time as Hindi replaces it.

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XIII. NEW RAILWAY CONVENTION

On December 6, the Lok Sabha accepted the Railway Convention Committee's recommendations, foremost among them being that the dividends paid by the Railways to the general revenue should be raised from 4 per cent to 4½ per cent annually during the Third Plan period. The effect of the Committee's main recommendations will be that the loss incurred in the working of strategic railway lines will be met from the Central budget and the Railways will have to contribute to their own depreciation reserve fund at the rate of Rs. 70 crores annually.

Further, the passenger tax at the existing rate shall be merged with passengers fare from April 1, 1961, and the State Governments will be paid a fixed amount of Rs. 12.5 crores annually during the Third Plan period. The railway development fund shall, besides meeting the cost of labour welfare works, be fixed at a minimum of Rs. 3 crores per annum for passenger amenities.

FIVE YEAR PLANS

Planning Commission was set up in March 1951. Under the first two Plans, national income has increased by 42 per cent, per capita income by 20 per cent, agricultural output by 40 per cent and industrial production by 60 per cent. Other main achievements are—

1. Three modern steel plants (Rourkela, Bhilai and Durgapur) were set up in the public sector under the Hindustan Steel Ltd.
2. India's most ambitious multi-purpose project, the Bhakra-Nangal Project is almost complete.
3. During the last ten years power generation has been doubled in the country, from 2.3 million Kw. to 5.8 million Kw.
4. Irrigation facilities have been provided for 70 million acres as against 51.5 million acres in 1951.
5. Annual output of machine building industry has gone up from Rs. 11 crores to Rs. 100 crores.
6. During last decade total number of students in the schools has gone up by 75 per cent and in the universities by 140 per cent. Medical Colleges have increased from 30 to 55.
7. In four lakhs out of five lakh villages of India, agricultural extension facilities have been made available.

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Important Events Of 1960

In the World

JAN. 23—The U. S. Navy bathescape *Bieste* descended 35, 800 feet (nearly 7 miles) in the Marianas trench in the Western Pacific, the deepest point of the world's oceans so far discovered.

JAN. 24—Algiers rightists launch week-long uprising against de Gaule.

FEB. 13—France explodes first A-bomb in Sahara in N. Africa.

MARCH 21—Violence erupts as South African Negroes protest restrictions. Over 70 Africans were killed in a riot near Johannesburgh when police opend fire on a crowd of several hundred.

APRIL 9—South African Prime Minister shot by white dissident.

APRIL 25—Nehru and Chou announce failure to settle Chinese-Indian border dispute.

APRIL 27—South Korea President Rhee quits after riots over rigged elections.

MAY 5—Khrushchev announces American plane operating from Turkey shot down over Russia. U.S. says weather plane went astray.

MAY 7—Khrushchev discloses U-2 pilot was captured and confessed spying.

MAY 10—The U. S. nuclear-powered submarine *Triton* completed an under sea voyage round the world covring 36,000 miles in 84 days.

MAY 16—Khrushchev torpedos Paris summit conference, cancels Eisenhower visit to Moscow.

MAY 23—Isreal announces capture of Eichmann, Nazi accused of "mass murder" of Jews, during World War II.

MAY 27—Turkish Army seizes power after rioting against Government. President Bayar and Mr. Menderes, the Prime Minister were arrested.

JUNE 16—Eisenhower visit to Tokyo cancelled amid violence over new treaty with U.S.

JULY 1—Shooting down of RB-47 reconnaissance plane in Artic causes new U.S.-Soviet controversy.

JULY 6—Violence breaks out in newly independent Congo as army mutinies.

JULY 9—Khrushchev warns U. S. of rocket attack if Cuba is interfered with ; Cubans rejoice.

JULY 14—Security Council authorizes U.N. military force to pacify Congo.

AUG. 8—Military coup overthrows pro-West regime in Laos.

AUG. 19—Moscow convicts U-2 pilot Powers as spy ; sentence is ten years.

AUG. 28—American Republics in San Jose condemn outside interference in hemisphere.

SEPT. 5—Pro-Western Congolese President Kasavubu dismisses Soviet-supported Premier Lumumba.

SEPT. 11—The Olympic games ended in Rome. Russia took 43 gold medals, and United States 34.

SEPT. 14—Army chief Mobutu takes over in Congo, orders Soviet and Czech delegations out.

SEPT. 19—Khrushchev arrives for "summit" session of U. N. Assembly.

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SEPT. 20—Thirteen African nations and Cyprus admitted to U.N. Four others joined later.

SEPT. 22—Eisenhower in U.N. calls for increased aid to developing nations.

SEPT. 23—Khrushchev in U.N. attacks Hammarskjold, demands U. N. reorganization.

SEPT. 29—Macmillan of Britain heckled by Khrushchev during U. N. speech.

OCT. 19—U.S. embargoes most exports to Cuba.

NOV.16—U.S. moves to protect dollar by cutting down spending abroad.

NOV. 20—Japan's pro-West regime wins elections.

NOV. 22—U.N. Assembly seats Kasavubu as head of Congo delegation.

DEC. 1—Congolese regime captures Lumumba after escape.

DEC. 9—De Gaulle begins Algerian tour, provoking rightists' riots and Moslem counter-violence.

DEC. 20—U. N. Assembly deadlocks on Congo, leaving Hammarskjold's neutral mandate unchanged.

DEC. 30—Laos reports invasion by Communist North Vietnamese.

Important Indian Dates, 1960

13th January—INS *Trisul*, a new anti-submarine frigate of the Indian Navy is commissioned at a ceremony in the U. K.

1st April—Five-Year Interest free Prize Bonds are put on sale all over the country by the Government of India.

12th April—The International Court of Justice at the Hague gives its judgement on Portugal's application for recognition of her rights of passage through Indian territory between Daman and the island enclaves of Dadra and Nagar Haveli.

19 April—H. E. Mr. Chow Enlie, Prime Minister of China arrives in New Delhi for talks on Sino-Indian issues.

1st May—Two new States, Maharashtra and Gujarat came into existence under Bombay Reorganisation Act.

16 May—Joint Indo-British-Nepalese Services Expedition conquers 26,041 ft. high peak of Annapurna II.

1st June—The four-hundredth branch of the State Bank of India is opened at Kairana U.P.

16th June—India is linked with the United Kingdom by the International Telex Service, first of its kind in India.

1st July—The Heavy Electrical Factory at Bhopal, first of its kind in India, commences production according to schedule.

3rd October—Prime Minister Nehru addresses the U.N. General Assembly in New York.

6th July—The draft outline of the Third Plan is released.

10th July—Canada-India Reactor at Trombay, the second in India, reaches critically.

11th July—National strike of Indian Government employees began. Violance occured in number of areas on this and following day.

16th July—The general strike launched on July 11, by the Government of India employees is called off unconditionally.

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1st August—Mr. Nehru announced that he had agreed to formation of separate State of Nagaland on the borders of Assam.

9th September—India lose the Olympic hockey championship to Pakistan at the Olympic games in Rome.

19th September—The Indus Water Treaty 1960 is signed at Karachi between the Government of India and Pakistan and the International Bank of Reconstruction and Development.

21st September—The first naval vessel built in India since independence is launched in the Hooghly in Calcutta.

1st October—The metric system of weights and measures come into force in selected areas in the States and in a number of major industries throughout the country.

17th November—Prime Minister Nehru declares open the Agricultural University at Rudrapur, U. P.

15th December—Raja Mahendra of Nepal dissolves the first democratic ministry of Nepal and also Assembly. Prime Minister and several other Ministers were arrested.

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WHO'S WHO

Abdullah, Sheikh Mohammad, M.Sc.—born December, 5, 1905 near Srinagar ; graduated from Lahore and M.Sc. from Aligarh University, 1930 ; school master under Kashmir Government ; came in the public life in 1930 ; first started Muslim Conference with communal outlook but turned it into National Conference in 1938 ; jailed several times, notably in 1946 for '*quit Kashmir*' agitation and released in 1947 ; President, All-India States Peoples' Conference ; head of the Emergency Administration of Kashmir during Pakistan tribal raid in 1947 ; M.P. for Kashmir till 1952 ; Chief Minister, Kashmir 1948—53 ; was under detention from 1953 but released on Jan. 8, 1958 and again put into jail on April 30, 1958.

Acharya, Chintamani, M. A., LL.B.—born Dec. 9, 1893 ; educated at Ravenshaw College ; Govt. Pleader and Public Prosecutor and Govt. Advocate for 12 years ; was Vice-Chancellor, Utkal University.

Ahmed, Sir Syed Sultan, K.C.S.I.—born 1880 ; called to the Bar in 1905 ; Government Advocate, Patna ; Judge, Patna High Court, 1919-20 ; Vice-Chancellor, Patna University, 1929-30; member, Governor's Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1932 ; member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1937 ; 1941-1945 ; Legal Advisor, Chamber of Princes, 1945-47.

Ahmed, Muzaffar—born 1889 ; member of the Communist Party of India since its beginning ; convicted in Meerut Communist Conspiracy case 1929-33 ; edited several Bengali dailies and weeklies, such as *Navayug* and *Ganabani* ; Member, Politburo, Central Committee of the Communist Party of India.

Aiyer, Sir C. P. Ramaswami, K.C.I.E., C.I.E.—born 12th Nov., 1879 ; joined Madras Bar in 1903 ; Member, R.T.C. ; Indian Delegate to League of Nations, 1926-27 ; Law Member, Governof India, 1931 and 1942 ; Member, Council of State, 1930 ; Vice-Chancellor, Travancore University, 1937 ; Vice-Chancellor, Annamalai University 1953 ; Dewan of Travancore, 1936-47 ; Member, Press Commission, 1953; Vice-Chancellor, Banaras Hindu University, 1954-56.

Ali Yavar Jung Bahadur, Nawab—born in 1905 ; educated at the Nizam's College, Hyderabad and Queen's College, Oxford; was Professor of History, Osmania Uuniversity, Hyderabad, 1927-34 ; Secretary, Government of Hyderabad of certain departments, 1936-44 ; Minister of Hyderabad Government, 1946-47; Vice-Chancellor, Osmania University, 1948-52 ; Ambassador of India to Egypt and concurrently Minister to Lebanon and Libya, 1954-58 ; Indian delegate to the General Assembly of the U. N., 1946-50 ; Member, Indian National Commission for UNESCO, 1950 ; Ambassadoor to Yugoslavia from 1958.

Ali Zahir, Syed—born March 21, 1897 ; educated at Allahabad and Oxford ; called to Bar (Middle Temple) in 1921 ; General Secretary, All Parties Shia

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Conference ; Member, U. P. Legislative Assembely, 1937-46 ; Member, Lucknow University Court ; Member, Lucknow Municipal Board ; Law Member, Interim Central Government, 1946; India's Ambassador to Iran, 1947-50 ; Minister, U.P. Government from 1951.

Alva, Joachim, B.A., LL.B.—born Jan. 21, 1907 ; educated at Mangalore and Elphinstone College, Bombay ; suffered imprisonment twice for Congress cause ; Advocate, Bombay High Court ; Founder and Editor, *Forum* (1943) ; Member, All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference ; Sheriff of Bombay, 1949 ; Member, Lok Sabha, 1952 ; a noted Journalist.

Alva, Mrs. Violet—born in 1908 at Ahmedabad ; educated at Bombay ; studied law and practised as an advocate ; was Honorary Presidency Magistrate, Bombay, 1947 and Justice of the Peace ; Vice-President, All India Christian Congress, 1946 ; founder and editor *Begum* and later *Indian Women* ; Member, Indian Press delegation to Egypt, 1950; first woman to be elected to the Standing Committee of the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference, 1952 ; Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1947-52 ; now Deputy Minister of Home Affairs, Government of India since 1957.

Anthony, Frank Reginald, B.A., Bar-at-Law—born Sept. 25, 1908 and educated at Robertson College, Jabalpur ; Law College, Nagpur and Inner Temple, London ; President, All India Anglo-Indian Association ; President, National Union of Railwaymen ; Member, Central Assembly, 1942-45 ; Member, Sapru Conciliation Committee, 1945 ; Member, National Defence Council, 1942-45 ; Member, Central Pay Commission, 1945 ; delegate, General Assembly of U.N. 1946 and Parliamentary Commonwealth Conference, 1948 ; now Member, Lok Sabha.

Aney, Madhavrao Srihari, M.A., B.L.—born Aug. 29, 1880 ; educated at Moris College, Nagpur ; joined Congress in 1908 ; thrice member, Legislative Assembly, C. P. and Berar ; joined C.D. Movement, 1930 and suffered imprisonment ; Member, Congress Working Committee, 1924-25 and 1931-34 ; President, Berar P.C.C. 1920-30 ; was a prominent member of the Congress Nationalist Party and Hindu Mahasabha ; Acting President of the Congress, 1933 ; started All-India Hindu League ; Member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1941-43 ; India's Representative in Ceylon upto 1947 ; Member, Constituent Assembly of India, 1947-48 ; Governor of Bihar, 1948-52 ; Member of the Lok Sabha.

Anand, Dr. Mulk Raj, B.A., Ph.D.—born Dec. 12, 1903 in Peshawar ; educated at the Punjab, London and Cambridge Universities ; Lecturer in literature and philosophy to the London County Council ; editor of various magazines ; won research scholarship and studied philosophy in London and Cambridge ; was broadcaster, B.B.C. ; was film-script-writer at the British Ministry of Information ; was fame as a writer of novels '*Colie*', '*Untouchable*' and '*Two Leaves*' and *a Bud*' describing the life of Indian masses ; now editor of *Marg*, famous art journal ; author, novelist and critic.

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Ayyangar, M. Ananthasayanam—born Feb. 4, 1891, educated at Pachiappa's College, Madras and Law College, Madras ; member, Municipal Council, Chittoor ; member, Fiscal Commission ; member, Constituent Assembly of India ; President, Harijan Sevak Sangh ; member, A.I.C.C.; member, Central Advisory Board of Education ; imprisoned in 1940-41 and 1942-44 ; was member, Central Legislature ; Delegate, Commonwealth Parliamentary Conference, Ottawa, 1952 ; Deputy Speaker, House of the People, 1952-56 ; Speaker, Lok Sabha from 1956.

Barua, Dr. Birinchi Kumar, M.A., B.L., Ph.D. (Lond.)—born Nov. 20, 1910 ; educated at Calcutta, London, Oxford and Upsala (Sweden) ; member, Official Language Commission, 1955-57 ; Professor and Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Gauhati University ; Member, Sahitya Akademi; writer in Assamese and English.

Bakshi, Ghulam Mohammad—born July 1907 ; began his life as a village teacher ; joined Kashmir National Conference in his early days and had to go underground several times ; arrested and imprisoned four times for his political activities ; was Deputy Prime Minister and the Minister of Police, Communication and Supply, Jammu and Kashmir ; Chief Minister, Jammu & Kashmir from 1953.

Basu Jyoti, B.A.—born July 8, 1914 ; educated at Calcutta University, Bar-at-Law, Calcutta High Court ; Member, Communist Party since 1940 ; Member, Politburo of the Party ; detained several times under Preventive Detention Act ; Member and Leader of the Opposition, West Bengal Legislative Assembly.

Bhavanagar, Maharaja of ; Commodore H. H. Maharaja Shri Sir Krishna Kumar Shinghji Bhavsinghji, K.C.I.E.—born May 19, 1912 ; educated at Harrow ; succeeded to the Gadi on July 17, 1919 ; invested with full ruling powers on April 18, 1931 ; His State along with other States joined together to form Saurashtra ; Rajpramukh of Saurashtra, 1953 ; Governor of Madras, 1948-52.

Bhabha, Dr. Homi Jehangir, Ph.D. (Cantab.), F.R.S.—born October 30, 1909 ; educated at Bombay and Cambridge ; took mathematical triops there; awarded the Rouse-Ball travelling studentship in mathematics in 1932 ; worked under famous Prof. E. Fermi in 1933-34 in Rome and under Prof. H. H. Kramer in Utrecht ; was awarded Issac Newton studentship, 1934 ; won Adams Prize, 1942 ; lectured at Cambridge on cosmic radiation, nuclear physics ; Professor of Cosmic Ray Research Unit, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, 1942-45 ; Awarded D.Sc. (Hon.) by the Patna (1944), Lucknow (1949), Baranasi (1950) and Agra (1952) Universities ; Chairman, Atomic Energy Commission, Government of India ; now Director, Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Bombay ; elected F.R.S. in 1941 ; President, Indian Science Congress, 1951 ; President, Atoms for Peace Conference, Geneva, August, 1955.

Birla, Ghanshyamdas—born 1894 in Jaipur State ; Managing Director of Birla Bros. Ltd., which manage jute, cotton, sugar and woollen mills, collieries, bank and insurance companies, national and provincial daily and weekly newspapers, tea gardens,

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factories which manufacture motor cars, bicycles, textile machinery, rayon, paper, plastics, radios, small tools, ball bearings, boilers, lineleum, carpets, heavy chemicals and non-ferrous metals, zamindari, etc., all over India ; was member of the Indian Legislative Assembly ; resigned in 1930 in protest against Imperial Preference ; President, Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta, 1924 and of the Federation of Indian Chamber of Commerce, 1929 ; Member, Indian Fiscal Commission on Labour, 1930 ; was a member of the Bengal Legislative Council ; Delegate to the I.L.O. at Geneva, 1927 ; member, Second R. T. C.; Chairman, All-India Harijan Sevak Sangha.

Bhave, Acharya Vinobha—b. Sept. 11, 1895 in Kolaba district of Maharashtra ; educated at Baroda College, Baroda ; gave up studies and left home and went to Banaras to study Sanskrit ; met Gandhi at Banaras and joined his Sabarmati Ashram ; was named by Mahatma Gandhi as his first representative in the C. D. Movement ; was director of the Mahila Ashram, Wardha for a long time ; imprisoned for Congress movement ; originator of Bhoodan Movement ; has written many religious books.

Bhargava, Dr. Gopichand—b. March, 1890 ; educated at Lahore, entered politics under Lala Lajpat Rai ; Member, Punjab Legislative Council, 1927-29 ; jailed for Non-Co-operation Movement, 1942-43 ; member, Punjab Legislative Assembly, 1937 and leader of the Oppostion again in 1946 ; was member of the Punjab Partition Committee ; Trustee, Village Industries Association ; Chief Minister, Punjab 1947-49.

Brahm Prakash—born in East Africa after the end of World War I ; has been associated with the Congress since 1936 ; imprisoned for the individual disobedience movement ; became leader of the Delhi Congress Committee, 1946 ; Chief Minister, Delhi State, 1952-55 ; now member of the Lok Sabha.

Bose, Nandalal—born 3rd Dec. 1883 ; passed Entrance Examination and joined Calcutta Govt. School of Arts ; came under the influence of Dr. Abanindranath Tagore ; served apprenticeship under the master for several years; joined Santiniketan School of Tagore in 1914 ; was Director of Kalabhavan, Santiniketan, 1919-52 ; travelled Far East, China, Japan, with poet Tagore in 1924 ; decorated Congress pandals and exhibitions many times ; was conferred doctorate by the Banaras Hindu University, 1950 and title of *Desikottama* by Viswabharati, 1952 ; also D.Litt. by Calcutta University, 1957 ; is the most representative exponent of Indian Art.

Bose, Satyendranath, M.Sc., F.R.S.—b. Jan. 1, 1894 ; educated at Presidency College, Calcutta ; graduated in 1915 ; M.Sc. degree 1918 topping the list ; Professor Physics, Calcutta University ; reader of Physics, Dacca University and later Head of the Department for several years ; Khaira Professor of Physics, Calcutta University for several years ; President, Indian Science Congress, 1944 ; Chairman, National Institute of Sciences, India 1948-50 ; Nominated member of Rajya Sabha ; originator of the subject of quantum statistics, the utility of which was re-

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cognised and extended by Einstein. A group of nuclear particles has been given the name 'Boson' in recognition of his contribution to the subject ; also made significant contributions to Einstein's general theory of relativity ; Vice-Chancellor, Visvabharati, 1956-58 ; Awarded *Padma Bibhusan*, 1954 ; now National Professor of India.

Cariappa, General K. M.—b. Jan. 28, 1900 in Mercara, Coorg ; educated in the Central High School, Mercara and Presidency College, Madras ; one among the first batch of Indian cadets to be commissioned from Daly College, Indore, 1919 ; was with 1/17th Rajputs in Waziristan, 1922-25 ; first Indian officer to enter the Staff College, Quetta, 1933 ; Assistant Quartermaster-General, Deccan district, 1938 ; served with the 10th Indian Division in Iraq, Syria and Iran, 1941-1942 ; became Lt. Col. in 1942 and commanded a machine gun battalion of the 7th Rajputs, thus becoming the first Indian to command a battalion ; Assistant Adjutant and Quartermaster-General, Army, 1943 ; Member Army Reorganisation Committee, 1944 ; visited England in 1946 as one of the first two Indian students at the Imperial Defence College ; Major-General, 1947 ; Chief of General Staff for a brief period 1947 ; appointed G.O.C.-in Chief, Eastern Command, 1947 ; Lt.-General, 1947 ; appointed G.O.C.-in-Chief D.E.P. Command, 1948 ; decorated with the Legion of Merit by U.S. Government, 1949; Commander-in-Chief, Indian Army 1948-53 ; Indian High Commissioner in Australia and New Zeland, 1954-56.

Chandrasekhar, Subrahmanyan, Dr., F.R.S.—born October, 10, 1910 ; graduated at Presidency College, Madras, 1930 ; studied at Cambridge for several years ; Fellow, Trinity College, Cambridge, 1933-1937 ; Lecturer at Harvard Observatory ; is considered as one of the world's leading authorities in mathematical astrophysics ; appointed Russel Lecturer, 1940, U.S.A. ; Received Bruce Medal—highest honour of the American Astronomical Society ; Appointed Associate Professor at Yerkes Observatory, Chicago University, 1936 where he has remained ever since ; Awarded British Royal Astronomical Society's gold medal—the Society's premier award, 1953.

Chamanlal, Dewan, B.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law—born 1892 and educated in London and Oxford ; was assistant editor of *Bombay Chronicle* ; Member, Central Legislative Assembly, 1923-31 and 1945-46 ; member, Punjab Legislative Assembly, 1936-45 ; Member, Central Assembly, 1945-56 ; represented India in I.L.O. Conference at Geneva, 1932 and Monteral, 1946 ; founder of I.T.U.C. ; Member, Royal Commission on Labour, 1929-31 ; Ambassador in Turkey, 1948-49 ; Member, Parliamentary Delegation to U.S.S.R., 1955 ; Member, Rajya Sabha from 1956; leader of the Indian Food Delegation to Argentina ; delegate to I.L.O. Conference, Montreal, 1946.

Chagla, Mohammed Ali Currim,, B.A. (Oxon.)—b. 30th September, 1900, educated at Bombay and Oxford ; called to Bar (Inner Temple), 1922 ; Professor, Government Law College, Bombay, 1927-30 ; Secretary, Bar Council of the Bombay High Court, 1933-1941 ; Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University, 1947 ;

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Govt. of India delegate to U.N. 1946 ; Judge, Bombay High Court, 1941-47 ; Chairman, Legal Education Committee, 1948 ; was a member of the Law Commission ; Chief Justice, Bombay High Court, 1947-48 ; Chairman of the Life Insurance Enquiry Committee in 1958 ; Ambassador to U.S.A. from 1958.

Chakravarti, Phanibhushan—born Oct. 15, 1898 at Narayanganj, Dacca ; first class in B.L. Exam.; Lecturer in English, Jagannath College, Dacca ; joined Calcutta Bar, 1927 ; was connected with *Calcutta Weekly Notes* for 18 years ; conducted Bhawal Sanyasi Case successfully ; Legal Advisor, Government of India for Income-Tax matters, 1940-45 ; Judge, Calcutta High Court ; Member, Income-tax Investigation Commission, 1949-51 ; Chief Justice, Calcutta High Court, 1952-59.

Chakravarti, Sm. Renu, B.A., (Cantab), born Oct. 21, 1917 ; Educated at Calcutta and Newham College, Cambridge ; member, Executive Committee of the All India Women's Conference ; Ex-lecturer, Calcutta University; remained underground for three years to avoid warrant of arrest for leading a procession demanding release of detenues ; prominent leader of the Communist Party ; Member, Lok Sabha.

Chaudhuri, Naba Krushna—born 1901 ; educated at the Ravenshaw College, Cuttack ; joined Non-co-operation Movement in 1921 ; joined Mahatma Gandhi's Sabarmati Ashram in 1923-24 ; established Congress Socialist Party in Orissa, 1934 ; prominent leader in Orissa of States People's movement ; was in prison during 1942 movement ; was Secretary, Orissa P.C.C.; was Revenue Minister of Orissa Government in 1946 ; Chief Minister of Orissa, 1952-56.

Chaturvedi, Benarasi Das—born Firozabad, U.P., Dec. 24, 1892 ; educated at Agra ; Journalist ; Hindi writer since 1912 ; Professor of Hindi, Gujerat National College, 1921-25 ; Editor, *Vishal Bharat* for 10 years and *Madhukar* for six years ; Author and writer ; Member, Rajya Sabha from 1958.

Chaudhuri, Maj-Gen. J. N.—O.B.E., born June 10, 1908 ; educated at Calcutta, London and Royal Military College, Sandhurst ; received commission, 1928 ; Commander, 16th Light Cavalry in Burma during World War II ; attended Imperial Defence College, London, 1947 ; officiated as Chief of the General Staff ; Military Governor, Hyderabad State upto 1949 ; Officer commanding, 1st Armoured Division, Indian Army, 1952 ; Adjustant-General, 1952-53 ; Chief of the General Staff, Indian Army, 1955-56.

Chatterjee, N. C.—born Oct. 19, 1895 ; educated in Calcutta and London where he took LL.B. degree and joined Calcutta Bar ; joined Hindu Mahasabha movement in 1937 ; withdrew from politics for four years ; Councillor, Calcutta Corporation, 1940-44 ; Judge Calcutta High Court, 1948-1949 ; joined Hindu Mahasabha movement again and became its President ; Member of the Parliament, 1951-56 ; senior Advocate, Supreme Court of India ; has joined Swatantra Party.

Chatterjee, Dr. Suniti Kumar, M.A., D-Litt. (Lond.)—born Nov. 26, 1890 ; educated at Presidency College, Calcutta and School of Oriental Studies, London ;

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Khaira Prof. of Indian linguistics and phonitics, Calcutta University, 1922-52 ; travelled with Tagore in the Far East, 1927 ; represented Calcutta University in different international conferences in 1935, 1938, 1948, 1949, 1950 ; Awarded *Padma Bibhusan* 1955 ; Chairman, Bengal Legislative Council from 1952 ; Member, Language Commission ; Chairman, Sanskrit Commission, 1956 ; author of several books on linguistics.

Chattopadhaya, Harindranath—born April 2, 1898 at Hyderabad ; brother of Sarojini Naidu ; educated at Hyderabad, Deccan and also at Cambridge for a year ; well-known as a poet and playwright ; has travelled extensively throughout Europe and America ; has acquired specialised knowledge on theatre and stage-craft ; is a disciple of Sri Aurobindo ; visited Russia as representative of Indian artistes and authors, 1951; Member of the Parliament, 1951-56 ; author of following books—*Feast of Youth ; Perfume of Earth, Gray Clouds, etc.*

Chavan, Yeshwantrao, B.—born March 12, 1914 in Satara district ; participated in the Civil Disobedience Movement of 1932 ; graduated in 1938 and took LL.B. degree in 1941 ; joined the 'Quit India' movement and led underground movement from 1942-1943 when arrested ; Member, Maharashtra P. C. C. since 1940 ; Member, Bombay Legislative Assembly from 1946 ; Minister of Civil Supplies, 1952-57 ; Chief Minister of Bombay from 1957.

Chopra, Lt. Col. Sir R. N., C.I.E., M.D., F.R.C.P. (Lond.)—born Aug. 17, 1882 ; educated at Punjab and Cambridge Universities and then London ; joined I.M.S. in 1908 ; Director, School of Tropical Medicine, Cal. 1935-41 ; has attained international fame by his researches in tropical diseases ; President, Indian Drugs Enquiry Committee 1930-31 ; Director, Medical Services, Kashmir State ; started Bio-Assay Laboratory in Calcutta for laying down standards in medicines ; Honorary Physician to the King of Great Britain, 1935-39 ; President, Indian Science Congress, 1947 ; Chairman, Indigenous Systems of Medicine Committee ; is now Director of Drug Research Laboratory, Kashmir.

Dange, S. A.—born October 10, 1899 ; Member, Central Committee and Poliburo of the Communist Party of India ; Vice-President, World Federation of Trade Unions ; imprisoned numerous times for his activity in conducting strikes ; Member of the Parliament.

Das, Sudhi Ranjan—born Oct., 11, 1894 ; educated at Santiniketan from 1905-11, Bangabasi College, Calcutta & University College, London, from where he took LL.B. degree in 1918 ; called to the Bar at Grey's Inn and joined Calcutta Bar, 1919 ; sometime lecturer, University Law College, Calcutta ; Additional Judge, Calcutta High Court, 1942-44 ; Puisne Judge of that Court, 1944 ; Chief Justice, East Punjab High Court, 1949; Judge, Federal Court, 1950 ; Chief Justice, Supreme Court of India from 1956-59 ; Vice-Chancellor, Viswabharati University from 1959.

Daulatram, Jairamdas—born 1892 at Hyderabad, Sind ; graduated in law, 1915 ; joined Non-Co-operation Movement, 1920 ; member, A.I.C.C. for several years ; Editor, *Hindu* (Karachi),

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1921 ; General Secy., Hindu Mahasabha, 1925-27 ; Editor, *Hindusthan Times*, Delhi, 1925-26 ; Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1926-29 ; General Secretary of the Congress, 1931-34 ; Member, Congress Working Committee, 1928-41 ; imprisoned four times during political movement, 1930-34 ; Member, Indian Constituent Assembly ; Governor of Bihar, 1947 ; was Minister of Food and Agriculture, Government of India ; was Governor of Assam.

Dhebar, U. N.—born Sept. 21, 1905 in Jamnagar State ; matriculated at the age of 17 ; started practice, as lawyer at Rajkot, 1929 ; left practice for good in 1936 ; joined political movement; courted arrest several times ; became Chief Minister of Saurashtra State, 1948-54 ; President of the Congress, 1954-1958.

Devi, Kamala—born 1903, Mangalore ; educated in Madras and London School of Economics ; General Secretary, All-India Women's Conference, 1926-30 ; President, All-India Women's Conference, 1944-45 ; married Harindranath Chattopadhyaya, the poet and brother of Mrs. Sarojini Naidu ; a gifted speaker; entered Congress, 1922; imprisoned four times for taking part in Congress activities ; first woman to contest Legislative Council election in India, 1926 ; went on world tour, 1930-41 ; Member, Congress Working Committee, 1946-47 ; Awarded *Padma Bhusan*, , 1955 ; now Vice-President of Sungeet Natak Akademi.

Desai, Khandubhai Kasanji—born at Bulsar, Gujarat in Oct. 23, 1898 ; educated at Bai Anabai High School, Bulsar and Wilson College, Bombay ; was General Secretary, Textile Labour Association, Ahmedabad and a member, Hindusthan Mazdoor Sevak Sangh and of the Ahmedabad Municipality for over 20 years ; was also a member of Bombay Legislative Assembly, 1937-39 and 1946-50 ; Director, Industrial Finance Corporation ; was President, Gujarat P.C.C.; member, Congress Working Committee ; has served on various important bodies including Fiscal Commission, Employees' State Insurance Corporation, etc.; Minister of Labour, Government of India, 1954-1955.

Desai Morarji R.—born 29, Feb. 1896 ; educated at Wilson College, Bombay ; joined Bombay Provincial Service in 1918 but resigned in 1930 ; suffered imprisonment in 1930, 1932, 1940 and 1942 ; was kept in detention during 'Quit India' movement, 1942-45 ; Member, A.I.C.C.; Minister for Revenue, Bombay Government, 1937-39 ; Home and Revenue Minister, Bombay Government, 1946-52 ; Chief Minister, Bombay, 1952-56 ; Minister of Commerce and Industry, Government of India, 1956-57 ; Finance Minister, Government of India from 1958.

Deshmukh, Chintaman D. C.I.E.—born Jan. 14, 1896 ; educated at Bombay and Cambridge and entered I.C.S. in 1919 and received his early administrative training in Madhya Pradesh ; one of the Secretaries of School R. T. Conference, 1931 ; Revenue and Finance Secretary of Madhya Pradesh for 6 years ; Jt. Secretary, Govt. of India Education, Health and Lands, 1939 ; Secy., Reserve Bank of India, 1939-41 ; Dy. Governor, Reserve Bank of India, 1943-49 ; Governor for India of International Monetary Fund and International Bank of

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Reconstruction, 1946-49 ; Chairman, International Monetary Fund and International Bank, 1950 ; Finance Minister, Govt. of India, 1950-56 ; Member, Indian Planning Commission, 1950 ; Chairman, University Grants Commission, 1956-1960.

Diwakar, R. R.—born Sept. 30, 1894 ; educated in Belgaun and Hubh ; graduated from Ferguson College, Poona, 1916 ; graduated in law, 1981 ; joined Non-cooperation Movement in 1921 and sentenced for two years ; Editor, *Nava Sakti* in 1923 ; President, Karnatak Provincial Congress Committee, 1930-34 ; Editor, *Samyukta Karnatak* ; imprisoned several times from 1921 to 1945 ; member, Constituent Assembly, 1946 ; delegate, 37th Session of the Inter-Parliamentary Union Conference, Rome, 1948 ; Minister, Information and Broadcasting, Government of India, 1948-1952 ; Governor of Bihar, 1952-1956.

Dey, Hirendralal, M.A. (Cal.), D.Sc. (Edin)—born November, 1896 ; educated at Presidency College, Calcutta and School of Economics, London ; Lecturer, Lucknow University, 1921-33 ; Head of the Dept. of Economics, Dacca University, 1936-45 ; now President, Indian Tariff Commission.

Dey, Surendrakumar M.Sc., (Engineering)—born in Sylhet, 1906 ; educated at Sibpur Engineering College and took Master's degree in electrical engineering from Michigan University, U.S.A., 1929-31 ; worked in the General Electric Co.; left service in 1947 to devote in the rehabilitation of displaced persons ; showed wonderful rehabilitation work at Kurukshetra and established the township of Nilokheri ; Administrator of the Community Project Administration, 1952-56 ; Union Minister, Community Development from 1956.

Dutt, R. Palme—born 1896 ; educated Balliol College, Oxford; Secy., International Research Dept., 1919-22 ; Executive Member of the same, 1921-26 ; Editor, *"Workers' Weekly,"* 1921-26 ; Editor, *"Labour Monthly,"* since 1921 ; one of the greatest living authorities on Marxism ; Author of *"Labour International Handbook," "Modern India," "World Politics,"* 1918-36 ; Vice-Chairman, Communist Party, England ; visited India in 1946.

Dutt, B. K.—born Comilla, 1st March, 1910 ; graduated in commerce from Calcutta University, 1930 ; joined Comilla Banking Corporation ; organised New Standard Bank Ltd. ; became Managing Director, Comilla Banking Corporation Ltd. ; with the amalgamation of four leading Bengali banks into United Bank of India in 1950, director and General Manager of the Bank ; became its Managing Director, 1956 ; was member of the Shroff Committee ; Member of the Working Committee of the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce ; visited Europe, U.S.A. and Japan.

Dutta, Dr. Bhupendra N.—born in Calcutta, Sept., 4, 1880 ; joined secret revolutionary movement in 1902 ; convicted for sedition as editor of *Jugantar* ; joined New York University, 1909 and got degree from Brown and Chicago Universities, 1904 ; visited European countries at the call of Indian Revolutionary Committee of Berlin during World War I ; joined Berlin University, 1919 ; visited Moscow in

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1921 at the invitation of Comintern ; admitted into Doctorate of Hamburg University, 1923 ; Member of the Anthropological Societies of several European Countries ; joined Indian National Congress, 1925 ; and suffered imprisonment ; President and Vice-President of several Kisan Sabhas and All India Trade Union Congress ; pioneer in interpreting history of India from historical-dialectic-materialistic standpoint ; author of the monumental work on the origin and development of Indian social policy and culture.

Dwivedi, Hajari Prasad—born August 1907 ; Professor of Santiniketan, 1930-50 ; Head of the Department of Hindi Bhavan Visvabharati, 1945-50 ; President, All India Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, 1946 ; now Head of the Department of Hindi, Banaras Hindu University from 1950 ; D.Litt. (Hon.) from Lucknow University, 1949 ; Member, Sahitya Akademi.

Elwin, Dr. Verrier—came to India in 1927 in Christa Seva Sangh and later settled here and founded Bhumijan Seva Mandal for the service of the aboriginals ; was appointed Honorary Ethnogropher, Bastar 1940 and Anthropologist to the Government of Orissa 1945 ; Now Adviser for the Tribal Welfare, NEFA ; has many books of Indian Anthopology.

Gandhi, Indira—born 1917 ; daughter of Jawaharlal Nehru ; first educated at Switzerland ; later at Santineketan ; then went to Somerville College, Oxford ; has travelled widely in Asia, Europe, America and Russia ; acted as Secretary to her father; married Feroze Gandhi ; has two sons ; at 21 became the member of the Congress ; went to prison for 13 months ; member, Congress Working Committee ; Chairwoman, Women's Department of the Congress ; Member, Central Election Board and of Youth Advisory Board of the A.I.C.C. ; was President of the Congress, 1959.

Gadgil, N. V., B.A., LL.B—born 10th Jan. 1896 at Malargarh, Central India ; educated at Poona and Baroda ; graduated in 1918 with honours in Economics and Politics ; was member and Vice-President of the Poona Municipality ; Secretary, Poona D.C.C. and Bombay P.C.C. ; President, Bombay P.C.C. for seven years ; was A.I.C.C. Whip and General Secretary, Congress Party, member, Central Assembly till 1947 ; imprisoned for eight years for Congress work ; Minister of Works, Mines and Power, Government of India, 1947-52 ; now Governor of Punjab from 1958.

Gandhy, Sir Jehangir Jivaji—born Nov. 18, 1896 ; educated at Bombay University, Columbia University, U.S.A. and Carnegie Technical Institute, U.S.A. ; joined Tata Iron and Steel Co., Ltd. as Metallurgical Engineer, 1921; Assistant General Superintendent, 1925 ; General Superintendent, 1930 ; General Manager, 1938 ; Agent, Ttata Sons, 1944 ; Director, TELCO, 1945 ; now Director-in-Charge, Tata Industries Ltd. since 1946 ; Director-in-Charge, Tata Iron & Steel Co., Ltd. since 1954.

Ghose, Dr. Profulla Chandra—born Dec. 24, 1891 ; comes from Malikanda, Dacca ; passed B.A. with 1st class honours in Chemistry, 1913 ; M.A. in 1916 ; first Indian to be appointed Deputy Assay Master, Calcutta Mint,

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1920 ; gave up the service to join Non-co-operation movement, 1921 ; had been in jail number of times in 1920, 1930, 1932, 1933 and 1934 ; member, Congress Working Committee, 1939-50 ; again imprisoned in 1940 and 1942 ; is one of the founders of Abhoy Ashram ; Chief Minister, W. Bengal, 1947-48 ; left Congress and founded Krishak Mazdur Party, which later merged with Krishak Majdoor Praja Party and Socialist Party as Praja Socialist Party.

Ghosh, Hemendra Prasad—born Sept. 24, 1876 ; renowned journalist and writer ; edited several newspapers and periodicals ; was for many years editor of *Basumati* ; author of numerous books ; lecturer on Journalism, Calcutta University.

Giri V. V.—born Aug. 10, 1894 ; educated at Berhampore (Ganjam) and Dublin ; practised law for some time ; joined Non-co-operation Movement in 1921 ; President, All-India Railwaymen's Federation, 1927 and its Joint Secy., 1929-36 ; represented All-India Trade Union Congress at I.L.O. in Geneva, 1927 ; represented labour in R.T.C. 1930-31 ; member, Madras Legislative Assembly, 1937 ; Minister of Labour and Industries, Madras, 1937 ; again Minister, of Madras in 1946 which he resigned ; twice President, All-India Trade Union Congress ; India's High Commissioner of Ceylon, 1947-50 ; Labour Minister, Central Government, 1952-1954 ; Governor of U. P. from 1958.

Gopolan, Avilliath Kutteri—born Feb. 20, 1904 in Malabar ; passed Matric exam. from Mission High School, Tellicherry, 1921 ; clerk in Malabar District Board for 8 years ; joined Gandhi movement in 1927 and sent to jail in 1930 ; joined Congress Socialist Party, 1935 ; Member, A.I.C.C., 1936-39 ; was President and Secretary, Indian Kishan Sabha, 1951 ; headed a hunger march from Calicut to Madras (700 miles) in 1938 ; joined Communist Party in 1939; sent to jail in 1941 but disappeared from Vellore Central jail ; emerged from his hideouts in 1946 but again sent to jail till May, 1951 ; Secretary, Kerala Communist Party since 1946 ; Member, Central Committee, Communist Party of India ; Member, Lok Sabha and Leader of the Party in the House from 1952.

Govind Das, Seth—born 1896 ; joined Non-co-operation Movement in 1920 ; suffered imprisonment for 7 years ; President, Mahakoshal P.C.C., 1928-34 and 1946 onwards ; Member, Central Assembly 1923-25 and 1934 and 1947 ; visited South and East Africa in 1937 in connection with the status of Indians ; President, Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, 1948 ; Leader, Indian Delegation to Parliamentary Conference, New Zeland, 1950 ; is a Hindi author of eminence ; has written a good number of dramas, novels and travellogues ; Member of Parliament since 1950 ; Padma Bhusan 1961.

Gupta, Maithilisaran—born Aug. 3, 1886 ; educated privately ; started writing poetry at an early age ; author ; ex-President, Nagri Pracharini Sabha, Banaras ; imprisoned in 1941 for Congress movement ; a leading Hindi author ; member, Hindi Sikha Samiti since 1954 ; member of the Rajya Sabha ; awarded *Padma Bibhusan.*

Hanumanthaiya K., B.A., LL.B.

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—born in 1908 ; educated at Mysore and Poona ; was President of the Bangalore Muncipal Council, 1942; Leader, Congress Party in the Mysore Representative Assembly, 1945-49 ; President, Bangalore District Congress Committee ; Indian Representative at the Inter-Parliamentary Union Conference, Stockholm, 1949 and Dublin, 1950 ; was Chief Minister of Mysore.

Hussain, Dr. Zakir—born Feb. 1897 ; educated at Aligarh University ; gave concrete shape to Mahatma Gandhi's Wardha scheme of education ; built up *Jamia Milia* into one of the most significant educational institutions of the country and was its Vice-Chancellor from 1926-53 ; Chairman, Central Board of Secondary Education ; Vice-Chancellor, Aligarh Muslim University, 1948-56 ; member, Indian Press Commission ; now Governor of Bihar from 1957.

Jay Prakash Narain—born in the Saran district of Bihar ; left for America in 1922 ; and stayed there for nearly 8 years and studied at five different Universities ; returned to India in 1929, and was placed in charge of Labour Research Department of the Congress ; General Secy. Congress, 1930-32 ; imprisoned for C. D. Movement ; formed Congress Socialist Party in 1934; imprisoned in 1939 under D. I. Act and released in 1946 ; member, Congress Working Committee, 1946-47 ; a prominent leader of the Praja Socialist Party ; has joined Bhoodan and Sarvodaya Movement.

Jayakar, M. Ramrao, Dr. Bar-at-Law, LL.D., D.C.L., P.C. —educated at Bombay University ; entered Bombay Legislative Council, 1923 and became leader of the Swaraj Party in the Central Assembly ; took a prominent part to bring peace between the Congress and the Government, 1930 but failed ; Member, Central Legislative Assembly, 1926-30 ; a Member, R.T.C. and Joint Select Committee, 1933 ; Judge, Federal Court of India, 1937 ; received LL.D. from Oxford, 1938 ; member of Judicial Committee of the Privy Council ; Member, Constituent Assembly of India ; was Vice-Chancellor, Poona Uuniversity.

Jain, Ajit Prasad, M.A., LL.B. —born Oct. 2, 1902 ; educated at Lucknow University ; Member, U.P. Legislative Assembly, 1937-38 ; Member, A.I.C.C., 1931-35 and 1946 ; Member, Constituent Assembly, 1946-50 ; Member, U. P. Legislative Assembly, 1937-38 ; Member, Indian Parliament since 1948 ; suffered imprisonment for participating in Congress Movement, 1921, 1930-32, 1940 and 1942 ; has travelled extensively in Europe ; Minister of Rehabilitation 1950-54 ; now Minister of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.

Jagjivan Ram, B.Sc.—born April, 1908 ; educated at Banaras and Calcutta Universities ; Secretary, Bihar Harijan Sevak Sangha, 1938 ; General Secretary, All-India Depressed Classes League till 1936 and its President, 1936-46 ; suffered imprisonment for participating in Congress movement, 1940-43 ; Parliamentary Secretary of the Congress Ministry, 1937-39 ; Minister of the Congress Government in Bihar 1946 ; Labour Member, Interim Central Government, 1947 ; Leader, Indian Delegation to I.L.O. Conference, 1947 ; Mi-

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nister of Labour, and Railway for 1957.

Joshi, P. C. M.A., LL.B.—born 1907 ; joined communist movement when in college ; convicted in Meerut Conspiracy case for 5 years ; edited the party weekly *National Front*, started party's new organ, *People's War* (1942-45).

Kamath, Hari Vishnu, B.Sc.—born July 13, 1907 ; educated at Madras University, School of Economics, London and University College, London ; joined I.C.S. (1930-38) but resigned ; Secretary, National Planning Committee ; joined Forward Bloc and become its Secretary ; served several terms of imprisonment, 1940-56 ; Member, Constituent Assembly and Indian Parliament, 1946-52 and again Indian Parliament, 1946-52 and again 1954-56.

Kabir, Humayun, M.A. (Cal. & Oxford) ; born Feb. 22, 1906 ; educated at Calcutta and Oxford ; Secretary, Oxford Union Society, 1931 ; President, All-India Students' Congress and was the leader of the Krishak Praja Party in the Bengal Legislative Council, 1941-47 ; was also President of various organisations including All-Bengal Peasants' Party, Bengal-Assam Railway Employees' Association, etc.; was Professor of Calcutta and Andhra Universities ; Assessor to the adjudicator in All-India Railway dispute, 1946; Member, Indian Railway Enquiry Committee, 1947; Deputy Leader, Indian Delegation at the 3rd General Conference of U.N.E.S.C.O., 1948; Educational Adviser and Secretary, Government of India, 1952-56 ; President, Indian Philosophical Congress, 1954 ; Minister of State for Civil Aviation, Government of India, 1957-58 ; Minister, Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, Government of India from 1958 ; author of many Bengali books and Editor, *Chaturanga*.

Kalelkar, Kaka Saheb—born Dec. 1, 1885 ; eminent social worker, educationist and writer; was the closest associate of Mahatma Gandhi since 1915 ; was Vice-Chancellor and Principal of Gujarat Vidyapith, 1927-35 ; was editor of *Navajivan*, 1916-30 ; President of the Basic Education Society ; was Director, Mahatma Gandhi Memorial Museum up to 1956 ; Chairman, Backward Classes Commission, 1933-55 ; member, Sahitya Akademi ; author of numerous books.

Kairon, Sardar Pratap Singh—born 1901 at Amritsar ; educated at Khalsa College, Amritsar and graduated from Michigan University, U.S.A.; joined Congress in 1929 ; courted imprisonment for Congress cause ; elected M.L.A., Punjab 1936 ; re-elected 1946 ; Minister of Punjab 1947-49 ; General Secretary, Punjab P.C.C. 1941-50 ; Chief Minister, Punjab since 1956.

Karan Singh, Yuvaraj—born March 9, 1931 ; son of Hari Singh, the ex-Maharaja of Jammu & Kashmir ; became the constitutional head of Kashmir in 1949 ; was elected Sadar-i-Riyasat by the State's Constituent Assembly in 1952 ; educated at Srinagar, then at Doon School from where he passed Senior Cambridge examination ; took his Intermediate from Allahabad University and his B.A. from J. & K. University ; took Master's degree in Political Science from Delhi University ; Chancellor of the J. & K. University.

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Katju, Dr. Kailash Nath, M.A., LL.D.—born 17th June, 1887; joined Allahabad High Court 1914; obtained LL.D. of Allahabad University, 1919; Chairman, Allahabad Municipal Board, 1935-37; Minister under Congress Government in U.P., 1937-39 and April, 1946—August, 1947; member, A.I.C.C., imprisoned for 18 months in connection with C.D. movement; detained under Defence of India Rules, 1942-43; Governor, Orissa, 1947-48; Governor, West Bengal, 1948-51; Home and Defence Minister, Government of India, 1951-56; Chief Minister, Madhya Pradesh from 1957.

Kaur, Rajkumari Amrit—born February 2, 1889; daughter of Raja Harnam Singh of Kapurtala; educated at home and in school and college in England; served on Gandhi's secretariat staff for 16 years; member, All-India Spinners' Association and Hindustan Talimi Sangh for several years; took part in freedom movement and imprisoned for 2¾ years; one of the founders of the w.I.w.c. and A.I.W.E.F.A.; President of A.I.C.C. 1931-33 and 1938; held various offices in all-India organisations for women since 1930; member, Central Advisory Board of Education for many years; Dy. Leader, Indian delegation to UNESCO in 1945 and 1946 in London & Paris; led the Indian Delegation to W. H. Conference; led the Indian Delegation to UNESCO in 1948, 1949, 1951 & 1943; elected President of the W.H.O. Assembly, 1950; President, Indian Leprosy Association and T. B. Association of India; President, Indian Red Cross Society and Vice-President of its International organisation; Trustee, Gandhi Memorial Fund; President, National Sports Club of India; Minister of Health, Government of India, 1947-1957; a keen lover of sports and a famous tennis player; now a member of the Rajya Sabha.

Karve, Dr. Dhonde Keshav—born in April 18, 1858; started his career as professor of mathematics in a Poona College; established the Widow Re-marriage Association, 1893 and Hindu Widow's Home Association, 1895; started another movement of village education, 1936; received one lakh of rupees from the public in recognition of his educational and social services in 1949 at the age of 91; was awarded *Padma Bhusan*, 1955; awarded *Bharat Ratna*, 1958; founded Hindu Women's University which was converted into S. N. D. T. Women's University in 1916.

Keskar, Dr. Balkrishna Viswanath—D.Litt. (Paris)—born 1903 at Poona; educated at Kashi Vidyapith and Sorbone, Paris; joined Non-co-operation Movement in 1931; was lecturer of Kashi Vidyapith, 1927-1930; Secretary, Foreign Dept. of the A.I.C.C., 1939-40; was sentenced to imprisonment in 1930, 1931 and 1943; detained during individual civil disobedience movement 1941-42; joined the August revolution in 1942 as underground worker; General Secretary, Congress, 1946-47; Member, Constituent Assembly, 1948; delegate, Inter-Parliamentary Union, Rome, 1948; Deputy Minister, External Affairs 1949-52; member, Indian Delegation to U. N. General Assembly, 1950; Deputy Minister, Railways and Transport in addition to External Affairs, March 1952—May, 1952; Minister, Information & Broadcasting, since 1952.

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Krishnamurti, J.—born 1897, in Madras ; was adopted by Annie Besant in 1909 who proclaimed his spiritual powers ; "Order of the Star in the East" was formed, headed by Krishnamurti, to prepare for a new Messiah ; he disbanded the Order in 1929 and repudiated the idea.

Kunzru, Pandit Hridaynath, D.Litt.—born Oct. 1, 1887 ; educated at Allahabad University and London School of Economics ; joined Servants of Indian Society, 1909 ; member, U. P. Legislative Council, 1921-23 and Central Assembly, 1927-30 ; President, National Liberal Federation 1934 ; member of the Council of States, 1937-47; President, Servants of India Society, 1936 ; member, Constituent Assembly of India ; Chairman, National Cadet Corps Committee, 1946-47 ; Delegate, Pacific Relations Conference, 1945 ; Member, Council of States from 1951; was member, States' Reorganisation Committee, 1953-55 ; member, Rajya Sabha from 1956.

Kripalini, Acharya J. B., M.A. —born at Hyderabad (Sind) 1888 ; educated at Wilson College, Bombay, Ferguson College, Poona ; Professor of History, G.B.B. College, Muzaffarpur, Bihar (1912-17) ; gave up the post to join Mahatma Gandhi's Champaran indigo Satyagraha, 1917 ; Lecturer, Banaras Hindu University, 1918-20 ; joined Non-cooperation Movement, 1920 ; imprisoned several times ; started Gandhi Ashram for Khadi & village work, 1920 ; Principal, Gujarat Vidyapith, 1922-27 ; member, Congress Working Committee ; General Secretary of the Congress 1934-36 ; President of Congress, 1946-47 ; member, Indian Constituent Assembly, 1946-51 ; member of Lok Sabha from 1957 ; member, Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Wardha ; left Congress in 1951 and organised the Krishak Mazdoor Praja Party which later merged with Socialists and is now known as Praja Socialist Party ; left this Party in 1960.

Kripalani, Mrs. Sucheta, M. A. —born, June, 1908 ; educate at Delhi & Punjab Universities ; Prof. Banaras Hindu University; Secy., Women's Section, Indian National Congress and its foreign department for one and a half years ; imprisoned 1940 & 1944 ; member, Congress Working Committee, 1947 ; Member, U.P. Legislative Assembly; member, Board of Trustees, Gandhi Memorial Trust ; member, Indian Delegation, General Assembly, U.N.O. ; member, Lok Sabha ; was General Secretary of Congress, 1959 ; Minister of U. P. Government, 1960.

Krishnan Dr. M. S.—Born in Madras ; graduated with honours from the Presidency College, Madras ; joined Royal College of Science, London in 1921, where he received D.Sc., and A.R.C.S. and also Ph.D. of London University in 1924 ; joined Geological urvey of India as an assistant superintendent, 1924 ; lecturer in Geology in the Forest College, Dehra Run for three successive seasons, 1927-29 ; professor of Geology, Presidency College, Calcutta, 1933-35 ; Assistant Director of Geological Survey of India, 1938-39 ; Superintending Geologist, 1945 ; Director, Geological Survey of India from 1939. Delegate to the Royal Society Empire Scientific Conference, 1946 ; Representative of India at the U.N. Scientific Conference, 1948 ; Fellow of all

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learned scientific societies, such as, National Institute of Sciences, Indian Academy of Science ; Mineralogical Societies of England, France, Switzerland, Germany, America.

Krishnan, Dr. K. S. D.Sc., F.R.S.—born Dec. 4, 1898 ; educated at Madras ; Research Associate, Indian Association for cultivation of Science, 1923-28 ; Prof. Allahabad University, 1942-47 ; President, National Academy of Sciences, India, 1945-46 ; President Indian Science Congress, 1939 ; was elected Fellow of Royal Society and fellow of several scientific societies and academies ; recipient of numerous medals ; delegate to several international scientific conferences ; collaborated with Sir C. V. Raman in the discovery of Raman effect ; Director, National Physical Laboratory, New Delhi, 1947-58 ; now National Professor of India since 1958.

Krishnamachari, T. T.—born Nov. 26, 1908 ; educated at Madras Christian College ; entered Madras Legislative Assembly, 1937 ; member, Central Assembly, 1947 ; member, Constituent, Assembly ; member, Indian Financial Delegation to London, 1948 ; member, House of the People and Minister, Commerce and Industry, Government of India, 1951-56 ; Finance Minister, Government of India, 1956-58.

Lal Bahadur Sastri—born 1904 in Banaras ; joined C. D. movement and imprisoned in 1913 ; General Secretary, U.P.C.C. ; member, U.P. Legislative Assembly, 1937 and 1946 ; Appointed Minister for Police & Transport, U.P., 1947 ; was General Secretary of the Congress, 1951 ; Minister of Railways & Transport, Government of India, 1952-56 ; Minister of Transport & Communications, 1957-58 and now Minister of Commerce & Industry from 1958.

Lohia, Dr. Rammonohar—born 1910 ; educated at .Calcutta, Bombay and Berlin where he took Ph.D. degree ; was a prominent member of the Proja Socialist Party ; was Secretary, Foreign Department of the Congress ; imprisoned two years for anti-war propaganda in 1940 ; took leading part in 'quit India' movement, 1942 ; founded Socialist Party with his own followers in 1956.

Masani, M. R., B.A., LL.B.—Born Nov. 20, 1905 ; educated at Elphinstone College, Bombay and London School of Economics, London ; advocate of Bombay High Court ; founder Secretary the Congress Socialist Party, 1934-39 ; member, Bombay Corporation, 1935-45 ; Mayor of Bombay, 1943-44 ; served imprisonment in 1932-33 and 1943 ; Secretary, Public Relations Department of Tata Sons Ltd., 1948-49 ; member, the Central Assembly, 1945-47 ; Indian Ambassador to Brazil, 1948-49 ; member, Indian Constituent Assembly ; Member of the Parliament, 1949-52 ; now member of Lok Sabha since 1957 ; one of the founder-leaders of the *Swatantra Party* ; author of many books, such as *India's Contitution at Work, Our India, Your Food, Picture of a Plan, Our Growing Human Family, etc.*

Malik, Hardit Singh—born Nov. 23, 1894 ; educated at Oxford ; entered I.C.S. in 1922 ; served in the Punjab 1922-30 ; Jt. Secy., Commerce Dept., Govt. of India, 1934-37 ; first Indian Trade Commissioner to U.S.A.

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and Canada, 1944-47 ; represented India at several International Conferences ; leader, Indian delegation, 6th Session of the U.N. General Assembly at Paris, 1951-52 ; High Commissioner for India in Canada, 1947-49 ; Indian Ambassador to France, 1949-56.

Mahajan, Mehrchand—born Dec. 1889 ; educated at D. A. V. College, Lahore & Punjab University ; practised as a lawyer at Dharamshala, Gurdaspur and Lahore for 30 years ; appointed Judge of Lahore High Court in 1943 ; served for a short period as a Judge of East Punjab High Court after partition ; appointed Chief Minister, Jammu & Kashmir State ; Constitutional Advisor, Maharaja of Bikaner ; Judge, Supreme Court of India ; also Chief Justice, 1954-56.

Mahatab, Harekrushna—born Nov. 21, 1899 ; educated at Ravenshaw College, Cuttack ; joined Non-co-operation Movement in 1920 ; Chairman, Balasore District Board, 1924-28 ; member, Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, 1924 ; Editor, *Prajatantra* and *Rachana* ; joined C. D. movement, 1930-1932 ; President, Utkal P.C.C. 1930 & 1987 ; member, Congress Working Committee, 1938-46 ; was Chief Minister, Orissa, 1946-50 ; was ex-Minister, Commerce and Industry, Government of India, 1950-52 ; ex-Secretary-General, Congress Parliamentary Party, 1952-54 ; Governor of Bombay, 1955-56 ; now Chief Minister, Orissa.

Mahendra Pratap, Raja—born Dec. 1, 1886 ; joined secret revolutionary movement ; toured almost the whole world several times to organise armed revolution in India ; President, Provisional Government of Hind, Kabul, 1915 ; member of the Congress 1906-52 ; member of Parliament since 1951.

Mahmud, Dr. Syed—born in 1889 ; educated in Aligarh, Cambridge and Germany ; was General Secretary of the Khilafat Committee and of the Alll-India Congress Committee, 1923 ; was member of the Working Committee of the Congress, 1945-49 ; Minister of Education and Development in the first Congress Bihar Cabinet, 1937-39 ; again Minister, Development and Transport 1946-52 ; was jailed several times, last being in connection with the 1942 movement ; member of the Lok Sabha ; Minister of State, Central Cabinet, 1954-56.

Mehta, Dr. Jivaraj, M. D. (Lond.) M.R.C.P. (Lond.)—born 1887 ; educated at Baroda, Bombay & London ; Chief Medical Officer, Baroda 1921-24 ; President, Indian Medical Association for several years ; Member, Medical Council of India 1938-43 ; Fellow, University of Bombay ; arrested and imprisoned in 1932-33 and 1942-44 under D. I. Act ; Director-General of Health Services of India, 1948 ; Dewan, Baroda State, 1948 ; Minister, Government of Bombay 1949-1960 ; Chief Minister, Gujarat State from 1960.

Mira Behn—born Nov. 22, 1892 ; daughter of Admiral Sir-Edmund Slade. Her interest in music and administration for Bethoven's works led to her Romain Rolland which in turn led her to Mahatma Gandhi ; left Europe for India and joined Mahatma Gandhi's Ashram at Sabarmati, Nov. 1925 ; accompained Mahatma Gandhi to London in 1931 for Round Table Conference ; suffered several terms

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of imprisonment during India's struggle for freedom; established an ashram and cattle development centre in Rishikesh forest area in 1947.

Mehta, Mrs. Hansa—born in 1897; educated at Baroda; married to Dr. Jivaraj Mehta; President B.P.C.C., 1930; fellow, Bombay University Senate 1931-1947; member, Bombay Legislative Council for several years; Vice-President, All-India Women's Conference for several years; represented India in several International Conference; was a member of the U.N. Sub-Commission on the status of women 1946; member, Human Rights Commission of U.N. 1947, and delegate, Commonwealth Parliamentary Conference 1948; author of numerous books; was Vice-Chancellor, Baroda University.

Mehta, Gaganvihari Lal, M.A.—born April 15, 1900; educated at Bombay and London School of Economics; Assistant Editor of the *Bombay Chronicle* 1923-25; Manager, Scindia Steam Navigation Co., at Calcutta 1928-47; President, Indian Chamber of Commerce, 1939-40; President, Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce, 1942-43; Member, Central Advisory Board of Education, 1943-47; Member, Constituent Assembly of India, 1947; Commissioner of the Port of Calcatta for several years; President, Tariff Board 1947-50; member, All-India Council of Technical Education, 1945; Chairman, Indian Tariff Commission 1952; member, Planning Commission 1950-52; Indian Ambassador to U.S.A. 1952-58; now Chairman of the Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India Ltd., also Chairman of the National Shipping Board and of the Hindushan Shipyard at Visakhapatnam; awarded *Padma Bibhusan* in 1958.

Mehta, Asoka, B.A.—born Oct. 24, 1911; educated at Wilson College, Bombay; imprisoned several times; one of the founders and prominent members of former Socialist Party of India; Secretary, All-India Socialist Party; editor of the party organ 1935-39; imprisoned several times; Member, Lok Sabha; was Chairman, Food Grains Enquiry Committee.

Medhi, Bishnuram—born April, 1890; educated at Gauhati and graduated from Presidency College, Calcutta; took M.A. degree from Dacca College; joined Bar at Gauhati 1914; participated in the Non-Co-operation movement in 1920 and was imprisoned for one year; enrolled as Advocate of the Calcutta High Court; Member of the Assam Legislative Assembly in 1938; was Minister of Finance and Revenue of the Assam Government, 1946-50; Chief Minister of Assam, 1950-52; Chief Minister of Assam, for the second time in 1956 which he resigned in 1957; Member, Assam Legislative Assembly, 1938 & 1946; Joint Secrytary, Congress Session, Gauhati, 1930; President, Assam P.C.C., 1930-39; First Congress Chairman, Gauhati Local Board; now Governor of Madras from 1958.

Mahalanobis, P. C., M.A., F.R.S.—born June 29, 1893; educated at Brahmo Boys School & Presidency College, Calcutta; received Tripos, Cambridge University; Senior Research Scholar at King's College, Cambridge;

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professor, Presidency College, Calcutta, 1922-42 ; M.A. of Cambridge University, 1918 ; Hony. Secretary, Biswavarati, 1921-31; Sectional President, Indian Science Congress, 1925, 1942 ; Secretary & Director, Indian Statistical Institute from 1931 ; Editor, *Sankhya* for several years ; Statistical Adviser to many Government Committees and Commissions ; Calcutta University Professor of Statistics, 1941-45 ; Principal, Presidency College, Calcutta, 1945-48 ; General Secretary, India Science Congress, 1945-48 ; elected F.R.S., 1945 ; President, Indian Science Congress, 1950, Leader, Indian Delegation, U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, Moscow, 1954 ; Chairman, E.C.A.F.E. Conference of Statisticians, Bangkok, 1952 ; Statistical Adviser to Indian Cabinet since 1949 ; received diploma of a foreign member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R., 1959.

Munshi, Sm. Lilavati—born May 21, 1899; a leading Congress woman, a keen social worker ; was an elected member both of Bombay Assembly and Bombay Corporation ; an authoress of repute with a record of national, social and benevolent services ; wife of Mr. K. M. Munshi.

Mitra, Pramendra—Eminent Bengali writer and poet ; began his literary career in his college days ; has edited numerous magazines and periodicals ; has written numerous stories and novels ; also a well-known writer of juvenile literature ; received Sahitya Academi Award and Rabindra Prize for his book of poems '*Sagar Theke Phera*' ; an organiser of A.I.R. ; received *Padma Sree* in 1961.

Mitra, Dr. Sisir Kumar, F.R.S. —born Oct. 1891 ; is a professor of physics and Director of the Institute of Radio-Physics and Electronics ; is a pioneer in the field of radio research in the country ; is well-known for his research in ionisphere—the radio roof of the world. His book on this subject *Upper Atmosphere* has been translated into Russian by the Ministry of Culture, U.S.S.R.; member, Indian Science Delegation to U.S.A. and U.K., 1944 ; President, Calcutta Rotary Club, 1942 ; President Asiatic Society (1951-53) and Indian Science Congress (1954-55); Fellow, Royal Society in 1958.

Menon, K. P. S., B.A. (Oxon.); I.C.S., C.I.E.—born Oct. 18, 1898; educated at St. Xavier's College, Madras and Oxford ; joined I.C.S. in 1921 ; served in Madras Presidency till Feb., 1925 ; Govt. of India's Agent in Ceylon 1929-33 ; deputed by Govt. of India to enquire into the position of Indians in Zanzibar, Kenya and Uganda 1934 ; Chief Minister, Bharatpur State and Political Agent, Western Rajputana States, 1940-43 ; Agent-General, Govt. of India in China 1943-47 ; Chairman, U. N. Commission on Korea, 1948 ; Secretary-General, External Affairs, Government of India 1948-52 ; Indian Ambassador to U.S.S.R. from 1952 ; awarded, *Padma Bhusan*, 1957.

Menon, V. K. Krishna, M. A. (London) ; M.Sc. (Econ. London) ; Bar-at-Law, LL.D. (Glasgow) (Honris cause) ; *Padma Bhusan*, 1954 ; born May 3, 1897 ; educated at Malabar, Madras and London ; Secretary, India League (London) 1929-47 ; Councillor, St. Pancras, London, 1943-47 ; Special Representative, Government of India, 1946-47 ; represented India in varous Inter-

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national Congresses; High Comissioner for India in London 1947-52 ; Delegate to U.N. Nov. 1952-53 ; First Editor, Pelican Books, 20th Century Library (Bodley Head) ; Minister without portfolio, Government of India, 1956; Minister of Defence, Government of India from 1957.

Menon, Sm. Lakshmi N.—born 1899 and educated at Trivandrum, Madras and London ; was lecturer, Queen's Mary's College, Madras, 1922-25 and Isabella Thoburn College, Lucklow 1930-33 ; represented India as an alternate delegate to the U.N. General Assembly in Paris 1948 and New York 1950; also represented India at the 3rd. session of the Commission on status of Women ; Parliamentary Secretary, Ministry of External Affairs, 1953-57 ; Deputy Minister of External Affairs from 1957.

Mody, Sir Homi P., M. A.,—born Sept. 23, 1881 ; Member, Municipal Corporation, Bombay, 1913-14 ; and its President, 1923-24 ; Chairman, Mill-Owners' Association, Bombay, 1929-34 ; President, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1928 ; President, Employees' Federation of India, 1933-41 ; attended Round Table Conference, 1930 ; Member. Central Assembly, 1929-43 ; Member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1931-43 ; Member, Indian Constituent Assembly, 1948-49 ; Director, Tata Sons Ltd. ; Delegate, I. L. Conference, Geneva, 1937 ; Governor of Bombay, Sept. 1914; Governor, Uttar Pradesh, 1149-52.

Mudaliar, Sir A. Ramaswami, .C.S.I.—born October 14, 1887 ; educated at Christian College and Law College, Madras ; Advocate, Madras; Member, Madras Legislative Council, 1921-26 ; Mayor, Madras Corporation, 1928-30 ; member, Council of States 1930 ; member, Indian Legislative Assembly 1931-34 ; delegate, Round Table Conference ; Leader, Indian Delegation to the British Commonwealth Relations Conference, Toronto, 1933 ; member, Economic Committee of the League of Nations ; member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1939-42 ; and member, Imperial War Cabinet and Pacific War Council, 1942-43 ; President of Social and Economic Council of U.N. 1946 and 1947 ; member, Indian delegation to U.N., 1945 ; Dewan of Mysore 1946-49 ; member, Indian Parliament, 1952; Vice-Chancellor, Tranvancore University ; Chairman, Indian Steamship Co., Ltd. since 1947 ; Member, Rajya Sabha.

Munshi, K. M., B.A., LL.B.—born Dec. 30, 1887 ; educated at Baroda and Bombay ; enrolled as Advocate, High Court, 1913 ; was a joint Editor of *Young India* in 1915 ; Editor, *Gujerat*, 1922-31 ; Secretary, Bombay Home Rule League, 1919-20 ; Fellow, Bombay University ; member, Bombay Legislative Council 1927-30 ; member, Baroda University Commission, 1926 ; member All-India Congress Committee, 1931-37 ; Home Minister, Bombay 1937-39 ; a well known Gujarati novelist ; left Congress in 1941 but rejoined in 1946 ; Agent-General of India in Hyderabad State 1947-48 ; Food and Agriculture Minister, Government of India 1950-52 ; Governor of U. P. 1952-57 ; Kulapathi of the Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan ; now a prominent member of Swatanara Party.

Mukherji, Dr. Hirendranath, M.A., D.Litt. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law—born Nov. 23, 1907 ; edu-

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cated at Calcutta University, St. Catherine's, Oxford and Lincoln's Inn, London ; Lecturer in history & politics, Andhra University, 1934-35 ; Head of the Department of History, Surendranath College since 1936 ; Lecturer, Post Graduate Department, Calcutta University 1940-45 ; member, Executive Committee, Bengal P.C.C. 1938-39 ; member, A.I.C.C. 1938-39 ; Foundation member, Friends of the Soviet Union 1941 ; Editor, *Indo-Soviet Journal*, 1941-45 ; Associate Editor, *Calcutta Weekly Notes*, 1945-52 ; member, Bengal State Committee, Communist Party of India, 1947 ; Member, Lok Sabha from 1951.

Mukherji, Sir Biren, M.A., (Cantab)—born 1899 ; educated at Calcutta and Trinity College, Cambridge ; is the Managing Director of the well-known firm of Martin-Burn Ltd., and also Indian Iron & Steel Co.; youngest son of Sir Rajendranath Mookherjee ; joined the firm of Martin & Co. in 1924 ; became a partner of Burn & Co. in 1931 and of Martin & Co. Ltd., in 1943 ; was Sheriff of Calcutta, 1940-41 ; was member of the National Defence Council.

Nadar, Kamraj—born 1903 ; President of the Tamil Nad President Tamil Nad Congress Committee, 1939-52, excepting six months ; member, Madras Legislative Assembly, 1936 and 1946 ; leader, Madras Legislature, Congress Party 1954 consequent on the retirement of Mr. C. Rajagopalachari ; Chief Minister of Madras from April, 1954.

Nag, Dr. Kalidas—born Jan. 15, 1892 ; educated in Calcutta and Paris University ; Professor, Scottish Churches College, Calcutta, 1915-19 ; Principal, Mahendra College, Galle, Ceylon ; representative of the Calcutta University at the International Conference of Libraries and Librarians Paris, 1923; Professor Calcutta University Post-Graduate classes from 1923-55 ; visiting Professor, University of Howaii; delegate, 2nd British Commonwealth Relations Conference, Sydney, 1938 ; General Secretary, Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1942-46 ; Member, Rajya Sabha, 1952-54.

Namboodiripad, E. M. S.—born in Malabar, June 14, 1909 ; entered active political field during civil disobedience movement in 1932 ; formed with his friends Kerala Congress Socialist Party in 1934 ; was for some time Joint Secretary, All-India Congress Socialist Party ; founder-member, Kerala Communist Party, 1937 ; a prominent member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of India and member of the Politburo since 1951 ; is a journalist and writer in both English and Malayalam ; visited People's Republic of China ; Chief Minister of Kerala from 1957-59.

Nanda, Gulzarilal, M.A., LL.B. —born July 4, 1898 ; educated at Foreman Christian College, Lahore ; Research Scholar, Allahabad University 1920-21 ; Secretary, Textile Labour Association, Ahmedabad, 1922-46 ; Minister of Labour, Bombay Government, 1946-50 ; Deputy Chairman, National Planning Commission, 1950-51 ; Minister Labour, Employment, Planning, Government of India.

Nayar, Dr. Sushila—born at Kunjah in Gujarat District ; came in contact with Mahatma Gandhi in 1930 ; was sent to jail several times, 1942, 1944 ; was

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several times, 1942, 1944 ; was Secretary, Kasturba Trust Medical Board ; toured Noakhali with Mahatma Gandhi during communal riots ; worked for the recovery of abducted Muslim women in Punjab, 1948 ; toured America, England and Scandinavia, 1948-50 and took graduate's course in child and maternal care at John Hopkins University, U.S.A. ; was Minister of Health, Delhi State.

Nehru, Jawaharlal—born Nov. 14, 1889 ; only son of Pandit Motilal Nehru ; educated at Harrow School, Trinity College, Cambridge and Inner Temple, London ; Advocate, Allahabad High Court ; Secy., Home Rule League, Allahabad, 1918 ; Member, A.I.C.C. since 1918 ; suffered first imprisonment for organising strikes and hartals during Prince of Wales' visit, 1922-23 ; General Secretary, A. I. C. C., 1923 ; Chairman, Allahabad Municipality ; arrested in the Nabha State and put in prison for agitation of the Akalisies; ; and attended Brussels Conference of Oppressed Nationalities as the official delegate of the Congress ; President, Indian National Congress, 1929 ; organised Bihar earthquake relief, 1933 ; was again arrested in Feb. 1934 and kept in jail, 1935 ; went to Europe for his wife's treatment who died there, 1936 ; President, Indian National Congress, 1929-30, 1936, 1931 and 1946 ; visited Spain during Spanish Civil War, 1938 ; elected first President of the All-India States Peoples' Conference, 1939; visited China, August, 1939; suffered imprisonment for participating in Congress movements, 1921, 1922, 1930, 1932, 1934-35, 1940 and 1940-45 ; took active part in the Cripps negotiation, 1942 ; organised a Defence Council for the officers and men of the Indian National Army formed by Subhas Bose ; visited Singapore, March, 1946 ; joined interim government as minister for External Affairs and Commonwealth Relations and was nominated Vice-President, Sept. 1946 ; Honorary LL.D., Patna University, 1946 ; same degree from Delhi University, 1948 ; called Asian Relations Conference at Delhi, March, 1947 ; Prime Minister and Minister for External Affairs of India since 1947 ; participated in Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference, London, Oct. 1948 ; addressed United Nations Assembly at Paris, 1948 ; visited U.S.A. and Canada 1949 ; visited China and U.S.S.R., 1953-55 ; attended the Coronation of the Queen Elizabeth 11, 1953 ; attended the Conference of Prime Ministers of S-E Asia in Colombo, 1954 ; Congress President 1951, 1952 & 1953 ; has revceived many Honorary Doctorates from Indian and Foreign Universities ; awarded, *Bharat Ratna*, 1955. His books include—*Autobiography* ; *Glimpses of World History* ; *Discovery of India* ; *Letters from Father to his Daughter* ; *Bunch of old letters* ; *etc. Hobby*—mountain-climbing, swimming and horse-riding.

Neogy, Kshitish Chandra, M.A., LL.B.—born 1888 ; educated at Dacca & Calcutta ; started practice as an advocate ; Member, Central Legislative Assembly, 1921-34 & 1942-45 ; Adviser to States Delegation to R.T.C. in London, 1930-31 ; Dewan of Mayurbhanj State, 1940-42 ; Political Adviser of Mayurbhanj State 1940-42 ; Member, Standing Committee of Ministers

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of the Chamber of Princes 1940-42 ; Chairman, Committee of Ministers, Eastern States 1940-42; Legal Adviser, Chamber of Princes ; Member, Central Legislative Assembly 1942 and again in 1946 ; member, Council of Human Rights, U.N. 1942 ; Chairman, Indian Railway Enquiry Committee, 1947 ; Minister of Relief & Rehabilitation, Govt. of India 1947 ; Minister of Commerce 1948-50 ; Chairman, Finance Commission, 1951-53 ; Member, Planning Commission, 1953-57.

Norkey, Sherpa Tenzing—born 1914 in Eastern Nepal ; began his life as porter to mountaineering parties at Darjeeling ; joined many expeditions—mainly Everest expeditions from 1935—such as Shipton, Ruttledge, Tilman's parties ; reached the height of 28,210 ft. of Mt. Everest with Swiss expedition in 1952 ; conquered the summit of Mr. Everest with Hillary on May 29, 1952 ; awarded George Medal ; now Director, School of Mountaineering, Darjeeling.

Pal, Dr. Radhabinod, M.A., L L.D.—Advocate, Calcutta High Court from 1921 ; Tagore Law Professor, Calcutta University for 3 times ; attended the International Congress of Comparative Law, 1927 and was elected President of the International Assembly of Comparative Law ; Judge, Calcutta High Court, 1941-43 ; Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University, 1944-46; Judge, International Military Tribunal for trial of war criminals for the Far East in Tokyo, 1946-48 ; elected member, International Law Commission in 1952 ; author of several law books ; awarded *Padma Bibhusan*, 1959 ; appointed National Professor.

Pandit, Mrs. Vijayalakshmi—born Aug. 18, 1900 ; sister of Jawaharlal Nehru ; was the first woman Minister in India ; took active part in the Congress movements of 1930 and 1932 ; President, All-India Women's Conference ; 1941 ; was sent to jail in 1930 and 1932 ; took extensive tour to America in 1944-45 ; again Congress Minister of U. P., 1946 ; leader of Indian Delegation to U.N. in 1946, 1947, 1948, 1952 and 1953; Ambassador to U.S.A. 1949-51 ; President, U. N. General Assembly, 1953-54 ; High Commissioner of India in London from 1954 ; received many Honorary Doctorates from Indian and foreign universities.

Pant, Pt. Govind Vallabh B.A., LL.B.,—born Sept. 10, 1887 ; educated at Muir Central College, Allahabad ; enrolled advocate, 1909 ; joined Congress in 1916 ; was leader of the Swarajya Party in U.P. Council for seven years, 1923-30 ; took leading part in the Non-co-operation Movement, 1921 ; President, U.P.P. C. C., 1927 ; took active part in Satyagraha movement, 1930 ; member, Congress Working Committee, 1931 ; Member Central Legislative Assembly in 1935 ; was Congress Chief Minister of U.P., 1937-39 ; again in 1946-55 ; Home Minister, Govt. of India from 1955; awarded *Bharat Ratna*, 1957.

Pant, Sumitra Nandan—An eminent Hindi poet ; His works include great poetic anthologies such as *Swaran Dhuli, Swaran Kiran, Veena* and *Granthi* ; gave up education during Non-co-operation movement and worked in close association with Mahatma Gandhi.

Pakvasa, M. Mancharam, B.A., LL.B.—born May 7, 1882 ; educa-

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ted at Elphinstone High School and College, Bombay ; was solicitor of Bombay High Court for 30 years ; was in jail in 1932-1940 and 1942-43 ; was President, Bombay Legislative Council upto 1947 ; Governor of Madhya Pradesh, 1947-52.

Panikkar, Sardar K. M.—born June 3, 1895 ; educated at Christain College and Christ Church College, Oxford where he was the first Indian to obtain a first class honours in history, 1917 ; Professor, Aligarh University; joined Non-co-operation and edited *Swarajya* ; the first editor of *Hindusthan Times*, Delhi, 1925 ; went to Europe 1925-31 ; Secretary, Chancellor of the Princes' Chamber, 1931-37 ; held concurrently, portfolio as Minister of Bikaner ; India's representative at the Pacific Conference, Canada, 1942 ; delegate to U. N. General Assembly, 1947 ; India's Ambassador to China ; India's Ambassador to Egypt and Minister to Syria, Jordon, Lebanon and Libya, 1952-53 ; Member, States Reorganisation Committee ; was Ambassador to France.

Patil, S. K.—born August 14, 1900 in Sawantwadi ; educated at Bombay and London ; studied journalism at the London School of Economics and London University College ; joined Non-co-operation Movement in 1920 and conducted National Schools till 1924 ; also took part in various civil disobedience movement, and was imprisoned several times ; member of the Congress Working Committee, 1947-51 ; was member of the Bombay Corporation for 18 years ; was President of the Bombay Provincial Congress Committee, 1946-57 ; member, Bombay Legislative Assembly for 10 years ; was Chairman of the Government of India's Film Enquiry Committee ; now Minister for Food and Agriculture Government of India since 1959.

Patwardhan, Achyut—educated at Central Hindu College, Banaras ; took M.A. degree and proceeded to Europe ; became Professor of Economics on his return ; joined C. D. Movement in 1932 ; started along with others Congress Socialist Party ; went under-ground during August revolution, 1942-46.

Prakasa, Sri B.A., LL.B. (Contab), Bar-at-Law—born Aug. 3, 1890 ; educated at Allahabad and Cambridge ; was called to the Bar in 1914 ; was connected with Banaras Hindu University, 1914-17 ; member, Banaras Municipal Board, 1921-25 ; member of the A.I.C.C. 1918-45 ; President of the U.P.C.C. 1934-35 ; General Secretary, Congress 1929-31 ; member, Central Assembly, 1935-46 ; was imprisoned five times during the national movement ; India's High Commissioner in Pakistan, 1947-49 ; Governor of Assam, -949-50 ; Commerce Minister, Central Government, 1950-51 ; Governor of Madras, 1952-56 ; Governor of Bombay from 1956.

Paranjape, Sir R. P.—born Feb. 16, 1876, M.A. (Cantab) ; D.Sc. (Hon. Calcutta) ; was Vice-Chancellor, Lucknow University; educated at Ferguson College, Poona, St. John's College, Cambridge, Paris and Gottingen ; Senior Wrangler of Cambridge 1899 ; Pricipal and Professor, Ferguson College, 1902-26 ; Minister of Education, Bombay ; 1921-23 & 1929 ; President, Indian Liberal Federation ; Fellow, Bombay University, 1905-07 ; member, Bombay Legislative

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Council, 1913-16 ; Vice-Chancellor, Indian Women's University, 1916-20 ; member, India Council, 1927-32 ; High Commissioner for India in Australia, 1944.

Ranga, N. G.—born Nov. 7, 1900 ; educated at Oxford ; Professor of Economics, Pachyappa's College, Madras, 1927-30 ; member, Congress Working Committee, 1948 ; President, All-India Kishan Congress, Rural People's Federation, Andhra Provincial Congress Committee ; was member of the Indian Parliament for several years ; President, All-India Handloom Weaver's Congress ; India's delegate to FAO Conference, Copenhagen, 1946 and I.L.O. Conference, San Francisco, 1948 ; led Indian delegations to the London (1946) and the Hague (1947) Conference of International Federation of Agricultural Producers ; Resigned Congress 1951 ; started Krishikar Lok Party ; now a prominent leader of the Swatantra Party.

Ray, Annada Sankar—born March 15, 1904 in Orissa ; educated at Patna University and London ; member, Indian Civil Service, 1929-51 ; permaturely retired as Judicial Secretary, Government of West Bengal ; Bengali writer ; early writings in Oriya and Bengali ; author of Bengali novels, short stories, essays and poems—about 45 volumes, including "Satyasatya," an epic novel in six volumes ; member, Sahitya Akademi Executive Board, 1954-57 ; delegate, International P. E. N. Congress, Japan 1957 ; lives at Santiniketan.

Ray, Dr. Bidhan Chandra—born July, 1 1882 at Patna ; educated at Patna ; M. D. degree from Calcutta University, 1908 ; L.R.C.P. (London) and M.R.C.S. (Eng.) in 1909 ; M.R.C.P. (London) and F.R.C.S. in 1911 ; President, Indian Medical Council, 1939-45 ; Fellow of the Calcutta University, 1916 ; Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University, 1942-44 ; D.Sc. (Cal.) conferred in 1944 ; Chairman, National Council of Education, Jadavpur Mayor of Calcutta for two times; Imprisoned for six months in 1931 ; member, Bengal Legislative Council, 1923 ; is Chief Minister of Bengal, 1948 ; *Bharat Ratna* 1961.

Ray, Mrs. Renuka—A graduate of the London School of Economics ; was a member of the Central Legislative Assembly from 1943-45 ; and then member of the Indian Constituent Assembly 1946-50 ; a prominent member of the All-India Women's Conference ; Member, Board of Education ; member, Governing body of Tagore's Viswabharati ; Minister of Rehabilitation, West Bengal, 1952-57 ; Now member of the Parliament.

Raman, Sir Chandrasekhara Venkata, M.A., LL.D. D.Sc., (Cal.), F.R.S.—born at Trichinopally, Nov. 7, 1888 ; educated at Hindu College, Visakhapatnam and Presidency College, Madras and graduated in 1904 and got Master's degree three years later ; entered the Indian Finance Department as Asst. Accountant General after winning first place in a competitive examination ; came to Calcutta in 1909 where he began his scientific researches ; Palit Professor of Physics at the Calcutta University, 1917 ; visited Europe in 1921 as a delegate to the Congress of the Universities of British Empire ; became Ghose Travelling Fellow, 1924 ; represented India at the centenary of the Frankin Institute of Phila-

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represented India at the bicentenary of the Russian Academy of Sciences in U.S.S.R., 1925 ; discovered the phenomena known as '*Raman Effect*' in 1928; received Meaucci Medal, Rome 1928 ; created Knight, 1929 ; received Hughes Medal of the Royal Society, 1940 ; awarded Nobel Prize for physics, 1930 ; resigned Calcutta University Professorship, 1933 ; Director, Bangalore Science Institute ; began to build Raman Institute in Bangalore, 1943 ; awarded Franklin Medal of America, 1951 ; President, Indian Science Congress, 1928 ; Fellow, Franklin Institute, Royal Irish Academy, etc. ; awarded, *Bharat Ratna*, 1954.

Radhakrishnan, Sir Sarvepalli M.A. D.LITT., F.B.A.—born Sept. 5, 1888 ; was educated in the Madras Christian College ; was Professor of Philosophy, Presidency College, Madras (1916-17), George V Prof. of Philosophy, Calcutta University (1921-31 and 1939-41) ; Vice-Chancellor, Banaras Hindu University (1939-48) ; President, Indian Philosophical Congress, 1927 & 1950 ; Hibbert Lecturer, Oxford University, (1929) ; was Spalding Professor of Eastern Religions, Oxford ; member of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, League of Nations (1931-39) ; Chancellor, Delhi University, 1943 ; Hony. Fellow, Asiatic Society of Bengal ; President, Indian Universities Commission 1948 ; leader of the Indian Delegation to U.N.E.S.C.O., 1946, 1947, 1948, 1949, 1950 ; was, India's Ambassador to U.S.S.R. 1949-52 ; now Vice-President of India from 1952 ; awarded, *Bharat Ratna*, 1954 ; Author of *Indian Philosophy* (2 vols) ; *Hindu View of Life* ; *Kalki* ; *Philosophy of the Upanishads* ; *Bhagvad Gita*.

Rajagopalachari, C., B.A., B.L. —born in 1879, graduated from Central College, Bangalore and passed law from the Law College, Madras ; joined Bar in 1900 at Salem ; gave up his practice and joined Rowlatt Act Satyagraha campaign, 1919 ; served many periods in imprisonment ; edited Ghandhiji's *New India* ; General Secretary of the Congress, 1921-22 ; member, Working Committee of Congress, 1941 ; and again in 1946 ; President, Tamil Nad Congress Committee till 1935 ; was Minister of the Congress Ministry at Madras, 1937-39; left Congress in 1942 on account of the difference of opinion but rejoined in 1945 ; member, Interim Government, 1946-47 ; Minister, Government of India, 1947 ; Governor, West Bengal, 1947-48 ; Governor-General of India, 1948-50; Minister of Home Affairs, Government of India, 1950-51 ; Chief Minister, Madras 1952-54 ; *Bharat Ratna* 1955 ; well-known author of many Tamil books on Gita, Mahabharata, Ramayana, etc. ; one of the founders of Swatantra Party.

Rajendra Prasad, Dr. M. A., M.L., LL.D. (All.)—born Dec. 31, 1884 in Jiradei in the district of Saran, Bihar ; passed M.L., 1925; leader of the Bihari Students' Conference ; member of the Patna University Senate for several years ; twice President, All-India Hindi Literary Conference ; joined Mahatma Gandhi in 1917 in famous Champaran agrarian affairs ; joined the Non-co-operation Movement in 1920 ; General Secretary of the Congress, 1922 ; member, Congress Working Committee for several years ;

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President, Bombay and Calcutta Congress, 1934 and 1939; imprisoned for August movement in 1942 and released in 1945; Minister of Food, Indian Union, 1947; President, Indian Constituent Assembly, 1946-49; President, Republic of India from 1950; author of the *"India Divided' and Autobiography.*

Rajendra Sinhji, General—born June 15, 1899; belongs to the ruling family of Jamnagar, Kathiawar; nephew of the great cricketer Ranjit Sinhji; educated at Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and Royal Military College Sandhurst; was commissioned in 1921; joined 2nd Royal Lancers; went to N. Africa as Squadron Commander in 1941; is the first Indian to win D.S.O. in the World War II; the first and only Indian to attain brevet rank of a major; commandant of the 2nd Royal Lancers in 1943; Deputy Director of Public Relations, Govt. of India in Washington, 1945; first Military Attache in Washington, 1945; and was awarded the U. S. "Legion of Merit;" became Brigadier, 1946; Major General in 1947 and Lt. General in 1948; Director of Indian Armoured Corps, 1946; Commander of Delhi and East Punjab Sub-Area, 1947; G.O.C. in Chief Eastern Command 1948, 52; leader of the Hyderabad Military Campaign, 1948; Commander-in-Chief, Indian Army, 1952-54; retired from active service. 1955.

Rao, Dr. Ramakrishna—born April 13, 1899; graduated from Ferguson College, Poona; entered political life in 1924 while practising as a lawyer in Hyderabad; was member of the Hyderabad Refrom Committee; was imprisoned during Quit India Movement and again in 1947; served as Education and Revenue Minister in the Hyderabad Cabinet, 1950-52; was elected member of the Hyderabad Assembly; Chief Minister of Hyderabad, 1952-56; Governor of Kerala, 1956-59; now Governor of U.P.

Rautroy, Satchidananda—born 1915 at Khurda, Orissa; executive officer, Keshoram Cotton Mills, Calcutta; participated as Government of India nominee in Social Services Seminar in Australia and New Zeland, 1952; attended Harvard University International Seminar of Arts and Science; story-writer in Oriya, has written numerous books of poems.

Rao, Dr. V. K. R. V. Ph.D. (Cambridge)—born July 7, 1908, represented India on International Food Conference at Quebec, Washington and Copenhagen; Director of Statistics and afterwards Planning Adviser, Ministry of Food, Government of India; Food Odviser to the Indian Embassy, Washington, 1946-47; Chairman, U.N. Sub-Commission on Economic Development, 1947-50; member, governing council, International Association for research in income and wealth 1947-51; correspondent for India, Royal Economic Society, London; Past President, Indian Economic Association, 1949; was member, Central Board of Film Censors, Press Commission, Planning Commission Advisory Board and National Income Committee; University Professor and Head of the Department of Economics, Delhi University and currently founder and director, Delhi School of Economics; was Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University.

Reddy, Dr. B. Gopala—born 5, 1907; graduated from the Viswabharati, Santineketan, 1917;

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participated in the Salt Satyagraha, 1930 ; went to jail in 1930, 1932, 1939, 1942 ; member, Madras Legislative Assembly, 1937 ; Minister, Local Self-Government, Madras, 1937-39 ; was Member, Andhra University Senate ; Minister of Finance, Madras Government, 1947-52; was Pro-Chancellor, Andhra University ; Chief Minister, former Andhra State, 1955-57 ; Minister of Central Government from 1958.

Reddy, Neelam Sanjiva—born May 19, 1913; Secretary, Andhra P.C.C., 1936-46 ; suffered imprisonment several times ; member, Madras Legislative Assembly, 1946 ; member, Indian Constituent Assembly, 1947 ; Minister, Madras Government, 1949-51 ; member, Rajya Sabha, 1952-53 ; Dy. Chief Minister, Andhra, 1953-56 ; Chief Minister, Andhra Pradesh, 1950-56 ; President, Indian National Congress, 1960.

Rukmini Devi—born Feb. 29, 1904 at Madura ; married in 1920 to late Dr. G. S. Arundale, President, Theosophical Society : started dancing in early age ; exponent of Indian dance and music, specialising in Bharata Natyam, music, drama, painting and crafts ; made extensive tours in different countries with dance recitals and lectures ; was member, Indian National Commission for co-operation with UNIESCO; President Kalakshetra International Arts Centre, Adyar, Madras, Member of the Parliament ; awarded *Padma Bhusan*, 1956.

Sachar, Bhim Sen, B.A., LL.B.—born Dec. 1, 1893 ; educated in Punjab and joined Bar 1918 ; joined Non-co-operation Movement, 1921 ; member, Punjab Legislative Assembly, 1936-45 ; Member, Constituent Assembly, 1949 ; Finance Minister, Punjab Government, 1946-47 ; Chief Minister, Punjab, 1949 & 1952-56, Governor of Orissa from Sept. 1956 to July, 1957 ; now Governor of Andhra Pradesh, since Aug. 1, 1957.

Sampurnanand, Dr.—born Jan. 1891 ; started as school master ; worked at Daly College, Indore, 1915-18 ; was Professor, Kashi Vidyapith, 1922 ; Member, A.I.C.C.; was Secretary, U. P . Provincial Congress Committee ; President, Second All-India Socialist Conference ; Ex-Minister of Education, U.P. Government, 1938-39 ; was Minister of Education, Finance and Labour U.P., 1947-52 ; again Minister of U.P. Government, 1952-54 ; Chief Minister, U.P., 1955-60.

Saksena, Mohanlal, B.Sc., LL.B.—born 1896 ; after passing LL.B. examination joined bar at Lucknow in 1919 ; was imprisoned several times since 1921 for national cause ; member, Municipal Board, Lucknow, 1923-25 ; Member, U.P. Legislative Council and Chief Whip, Swarajya Party, 1924-26 ; member, Central Assembly for several years ; member, Indian Constituent Assembly ; Minister, Relief and Rehabilitation, Government of India, 1949 ; Member, House of the People, 1948-49 ; Member, Indian Parliament.

Santhanam, K.—born 1895 ; graduated in 1917 ; enrolled in High Court, Madras 1920 ; gave up practice in the same year ; was in jail for several years for Non-co-operation Movement; was editor, *Indian Express* 1933-40 ; Member, Indian Legislative Assembly, 1937-42; Member, Constituent Assembly ; Minister of State, Government of India ; Governor, Vindhya Pradesh ;

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Chairman, Finance Commission from 1956.

Sen, Benoy Ranjan, C.I.E., I.C.S.—born Jan. 1, 1898 ; educated at Calcutta and Oxford; entered I.C.S. in 1922 ; was Secretary, Government of Bengal and then Press Officer during 1931-34 ; Revenue Secy., Govt. of Bengal, 1940-43 ; Director of Civil Evacuation, 1942-43; Relief Commissioner, 1942-43 ; Director-General of Food, Government of India, 1943-56; Secy. Department of food, Government of India, 1946 ; Minister to the Embassy of India in U.S.A., 1947-50 ; Indian Ambassador to Italy and Yugoslavia, 1950-51 and 1953-54 ; Indian Ambassador to U.S.A., 1951-52 ; Member, Indian Delegation to U. N. General Assembly, 1947 ; Head of the Indian Delegation, Economic and Social of the U.N. in 1949 & 1953 and also at the annual conference of F.A.O. in 1949 and F.A.O. Council in 1950, 1951, 1953 ; Director-General of Food and Agriculture Organisation from 1956. In Ambassador to Japan, 1954-56.

Sen, Asoke Kumar—born Oct. 10, 1913 ; educated at Calcutta and London ; qualified for the Bar from Grey's Inn in 1941 and joined Calcutta Bar in the same year ; Professor, Law and Economics, City College, Calcutta, 1941-43 ; Junior Standing Counsel in 1950 ; delegate to the 10th Session of the U.N., 1955 ; was elected to Lok Sabha from Calcutta N.-E. Constituency ; Minister of Law, Government of India from 1957.

Shrinagesh, General S. M.—born May, 1903 ; educated at Cambridge University and later entered Sandhrust Military College ; was comissioned in 1923 ; saw service in Burma, Assam & Waziristan and with the Lushai Brigrade ; Brigade Commander, 64th Indian Infantry Brigade of the 19th Indian Division in Burma ; was selected to go to Germany as Deputy Chief of the Indian Military Mission, 1945 ; commanded the 28th Infantry Brigade and promoted to G.O.C. Madras area ; became Adjutant General A.H.Q., India in 1948 ; took overall command of Indian Forces in Jammu & Kashmir in Sept., 1948 ; Major-General in 1948 ; Chief of the Army Staff and 'General' in 1955 ; awarded Legion of Merit, the highest of U.S. decoration bestowed on a foreign military officer, 1955 ; Principal, Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad. Now Governor of Assam from 1959.

Sidhanta, Nirmal Kumar, M.A.—born Oct. 31, 1894 ; educated at Calcutta University ; became M.A. (Cantab) with 1st Class tripos in English ; lecturer, School of Oriental Studies, London University 1922 ; Reader of English, Lucknow University 1922-26 ; Professor of English, Lucknow University 1928-1951 ; Dean of the Lucknow University, 1933-51 ; Secretary, Inter. University Board, 1937-1943 ; Chairman, Inter. University Board, 1946-48 ; Member, Central Advisory Board of Education since 1946 ; Member and Secretary, Indian Universities Commission, 1948-49 ; Member, Union Public Service Commission, 1951-55 ; Vice Chancellor for Calcutta University, 1955-60; awarded *Padma Bibhusan*, 1959 ; now Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University from 1960.

Singh, C. P. N.—born April 18, 1901 ; educated at Muzaffarpur

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and Science College Calcutta; Chairman, District Board, Muzaffarpur for 11 years; member, Bihar & Orissa Legislative Council and later Bihar Legislative Assembly; Vice-Chancelor, Patna University; Indian Ambassador to Nepal; Governor of Punjab, 1953-58; now Indian Ambassador to Japan from 1959.

Singh, Master Tara—born June 24, 1885 in Hindu family; embraced Sikh religion at the age of 17; began his life as a teacher; took prominent part in Nankana Sahib agitation; joined C. D. movement in 1930; a prominent Sikh leader of the Akalis; was once a prominent member of the Congress Party; was President, Shiromani Gurdwara Prabandak Committee; has suffered imprisonment for political cause; a prominent supporter of the Punjabi Suba.

Singh, St. Nihal—born June 2, 1884; educated at Punjab University; author, journalist, lecturer, traveller; served as special correspondent of '*Observer*' (London) and other papers during Prince of Wales' visit to India 1921-22; contributed to magazines, news-papers, reviews all over the world; has lectured before prominent societies; author of many books; was contributor to '*Hindu*' Madras, '*Literary Digest*,' America.

Singh, Jaipal—born Jan. 3, 1903 in Ranchi district, belongs to Adibasi race; educated at Ranchi and Oxford; was I.C.S. probationer at Oxford, 1927-28 which he resigned; leading hockey player of India; first Indian to get full Oxford blue; was in Colonial Service in British East Africa, 1933-36; Colonisation Minister and Revenue Commissioner, Bikaner, 1937-38; editor '*Adibasi Sakam*'; member, Board of Secondary Education, Bihar; member, Constituent Assembly of India and now member, Indian Parliament; President, Jharkhand Party.

Sinha, Bhubaneswar Prasad—born Feb. 1899; passed B.A. from Patna University with first class first honours; stood first in history in M.A. Exam. in 1921; passed law in 1922; began to practise in 1923; was appointed Government Advocate of Patna High Court in 1935; Judge of the Patna High Court in 1943; Chief Justice of Nagpur High Court; Judge of the Supreme Court of India in 1954; Chief Justice of India from Oct. 1959.

Sinha, Satyanarain—born 1900 at Darbhanga; educated at Patna; started his political career with a term of imprisonment in jail in 1920 for Non-co-operation Movement; member, Bihar Legislature, 1926-39; Chief Whip of the Congress Party, Central Assembly and also in Constituent Assembly; Minister of State for Parliamentary Affairs, Govt. of India from 1949.

Sarvarkar, Vinayak Damodar—born 1883, at Nasik; Bar-at Law; educated at Ferguson College, Poona; joined nationalist movement; was sent to England where he worked for Indian freedom under Shyamaji Krishnavarma and Madame Cama; was arrested in England for Nasik Conspiracy Case, but escaped from ship at Marseilles in 1910, but was re-arrested and transported for 15 years to Andamans from where afterwards interned at Ratnagiri; set free by Interim Bombay Ministry 1937; is a linguist and poet; President, Hindu Mahasabha for several years: retired from active politics.

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Sokhey, Major-General Sir Sahib Singh, I.M.S.—born Dec. 15, 1887; obtained medical degrees in Edinburgh and London ; did post-graduate work in John Hopkins University, Harvard Medical School ; Toronto Medical School and Trinity College, Cambridge ; joined I.M.S. 1913 ; served in the World War I, 1915-21 ; Rockefellor Foundation Fellow 1923-25 ; joined Haffkine Institute 1925 as Assistant Director ; was Director from 1932-1949 ; Assistant Director-General, WHO 1950-1952 ; received Stalin Peace Prize, 1953.

Subbrayan, Dr. P.—educated at Oxford ; a Senior Congress politician ; Chief Minister of Madras, 1926-30 ; later Law Minister in the Madras Ministry headed by C. Rajagopalachari, 1937-42 ; Home Minister of Madras, 1947-49 ; Ambassador to Indonesia ; member of the Parliament since 1954 ; member, Official Language Commission ; Minister, Transport and Communications, Govt. of India, 1959.

Tata, Ratanji Dadabhoy Jhangir—born July, 1904 ; educated in India, France and Japan ; first pilot to qualify in India ; holds 'A' and 'B' licences ; is Chairman of the Board of Air India International Corporation ; member, Indian Airlines Corporation ; Director, Hindusthan Aircraft Ltd.; Chairman, Tata Industries ; member, Indian delegation to the third session of U.N. General Assembly, Paris, 1948 ; Honorary Group Captain, I.A.F.; Honorary D.Sc., Allahabad University ; Officer of the Legion of Honour, France; awarded "International Management Man" by the National Association of Foreman, U.S.A. ; *Padma Bhusan* by the Government of India.

Tandon, Purshottamdas—born 1882 at Allahabad ; educated at Government College and Muir Central College, Allahabad ; passed LL.B. degree and enrolled as advocate at Allahabad ; Law Minister, Nabha State 1914-18 ; Chairman, Allahabad Municipal Board for several years ; joined Congress in 1889 ; gave up legal practice in 1921 and later participated in a string of movements, such as Rowlatt Act, C.D. Movement in 1930 & 1932 ; no-rent campaign in U. P. and the quit India movement in 1941 ; President, U.P. Congress 1923 and 1948 ; general manager, Punjab National Bank, 1925-29 ; founded the Central Kissan Sangh, 1930 ; Speaker U. P., Legislative Assembly, 1937-39 and 1946-50 ; member, Constituent Assembly ; founder, Hindi Sahitya Sammelan ; was President of the Congress, *Bharat Ratna*, 1961.

Tara Chand, Dr.—born 1888 ; educated at Delhi, Merrut, Allahabad and Oxford ; Professor of history at the Kayastha Pathsala College, Allahabad and then its principal for 20 years ; Vice-Chancellor, Allahabad University; Secretary, Ministry of Education, Government of India ; was Indian Ambassador to Iran ; author of *Influence of Islam on Indian Culture ; Short History of the Indian people.*

Thimayya Lt. Gen. K. S.—born March 31, 1906 ; educated at Bishop Cotton Boy's School, Bangalore, Prince of Wales Royal Indian Military College, Sandhurst ; Commissioned into Indian Army 1926 ; joined 4/19 regiment 1936-39 ; Adjutant, 5th Bn. (Madras) U.T.C. 1939-41 ; served in

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Malaya 1942-43 ; promoted to Lt. Col. and commanded 9/19 Hyderabad Regiment ; commanded 268 Indian Infantry Brigade in Japan as part of occupation-forces 1946 ; member, Indian Army Forces Nationalisation Committee ; Commandar, 4th Indian Division, 1947 ; Commander, Indian Troops in Kashmir, 1948-50 ; Commandant, National Defence Academy, Dehra Dun, 1950-51 ; Military Adviser to U.N. Delegation in Paris, 1951-52 ; Chairman, Neutral Nations Reparation Commission for Korean prisoners, 1953 ; Chief of the Army Staff 1957-61.

Thacker, M. S.—educated at Ahmedabad and Bombay ; graduated in engineering from Bristol University ; worked in Calcutta Electric Supply Corporation 1932-1947 ; Professor of Power Engineering, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore 1947-49 ; Director, Indian Institute of Science, 1949-55 ; President, Indian Science Congress, 1947-48 ; President, Institute of Engineers 1956 ; Presidents Institute of Metals 1955-56 ; now Director-General, Council of Scientific and Industrial Research since 1957.

Thakurdas, Sir Purshottamdas, C.I.E. M.B.E.—born May 30, 1881 ; was educated at the Elphinstone College and joined the firm of Narandas Jayram, 1902 ; Sheriff of Bombay 1920 ; member, Inchape Committee ; Member, Council of State 1922-23 ; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1924-30 ; Thrice President, Indian Merchants' Chamber ; President, Indian Chamber of Commerce ; Member, Royal Commission on Currency 1926 ; Vice-Chairman, Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee.

Trivedi, Sir Chandulal Madhavlal, K.C.S.I.—born 2nd July, 1893 ; educated at Elphinstone College, Bombay and St. John's College, Oxford ; entered I.C.S. in 1917 ; Assistant Commissioner C.P. ; Deputy Secretary, Government of India (Home Dept.) 1932-35 ; Commissioner of Berar, 1936 ; Chief Secretary, Government of Central Provinces and Berar, 1937-42 ; Secretary, Government of India (War Dept.) 1942-45 ; Government of Punjab, 1947-52 ; Special Officer for Andhra Affairs, 1953 ; Governor of Andhra, 1953-57 ; Member, Planning Commission from 1957.

Visvesvaraya, Sir M., K.C.I.E.—born 15th Sept. 1861 in Kolar district ; graduated from Central College, Bangalore, 1881 ; joined Bombay engineering service and retired in 1909 ; Chief Engineer, Mysore State 1909 ; Chairman, Bombay Irrigation Enquiry Committee ; Chairman, Indian Economic Enquiry Committee 1925 ; Member, Bombay Back Bay Enquiry Committee, 1929 ; in the capacity of consulting engineer and Adviser served in a number of States, such as Baroda, Gwalior, Bhopal, Kolhapur and municipalities, such as Bombay, Karachi and Nagpur ; was responsible for starting Mysore University, Bhadarvati Iron Works and Krishnarajasagara Dam ; founded Jaya Chamarajendra Occupational Institute, Bangalore ;- President, All-India Manufacturers' Organisation since 1941 ; Dewan of Mysore, 1912-18.

Vizianagram, Maharaja Kumar of—born Dec. 28, 1905 ; educated at Princes College, Ajmer and England ; captain of the Indian Cricket team which toured England in 1936 ; a great shikari ; was Minister of Justice in U. P.

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Government ; was President of the Cricket Control Board.

Uday Shankar—born in Udaipur ; was admitted in the Royal College of Arts, London ; began to take training in the plastic art under the guidence of Sir William Rothenstein ; joined famous Russian dancer Anna Pavlova ; made his own company and toured round the world ; opened culture centre in Almora U. P. which was closed down during World War II.

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ADDENDA

NOBEL PRIZE, 1960

Medicine—Sir F. M. Burnet (Australia)
Dr. Peter B. Medawar (England)

Literature—St. John Perse (France)

Chemistry—Willard F. Libby (U.S.A.)

Physics—Prof. Donald A. Glaser (U.S.A.)

Peace—No Award

NEW BIHAR MINISTRY

Ministers	*Deputy Ministers*
Binodanand Jha	A. M. Noor
Dip Narain Sinha	Kedar Pandey
Bhola Paswan	Ambika Saran Sinha
Birchand Patel	Chandrika Ram
Satyendra Narain Sinha	Deo Narain Yadav
Jaffar Imam	Daraga Prasad Rai
Ram Prakash Lal	Laliteswar Prasad Sahi
	Krishna Kant Singh

NAGALAND

Members of the Executive Council

Chairman of the Interim Body : Dr. Imkongliba Ao.

Chairman : Shilu Ao

Members : Jaso Kie Angami,
Hoishe Sema,
R. C. Chiten Jamir,
Akum Imkong Chang

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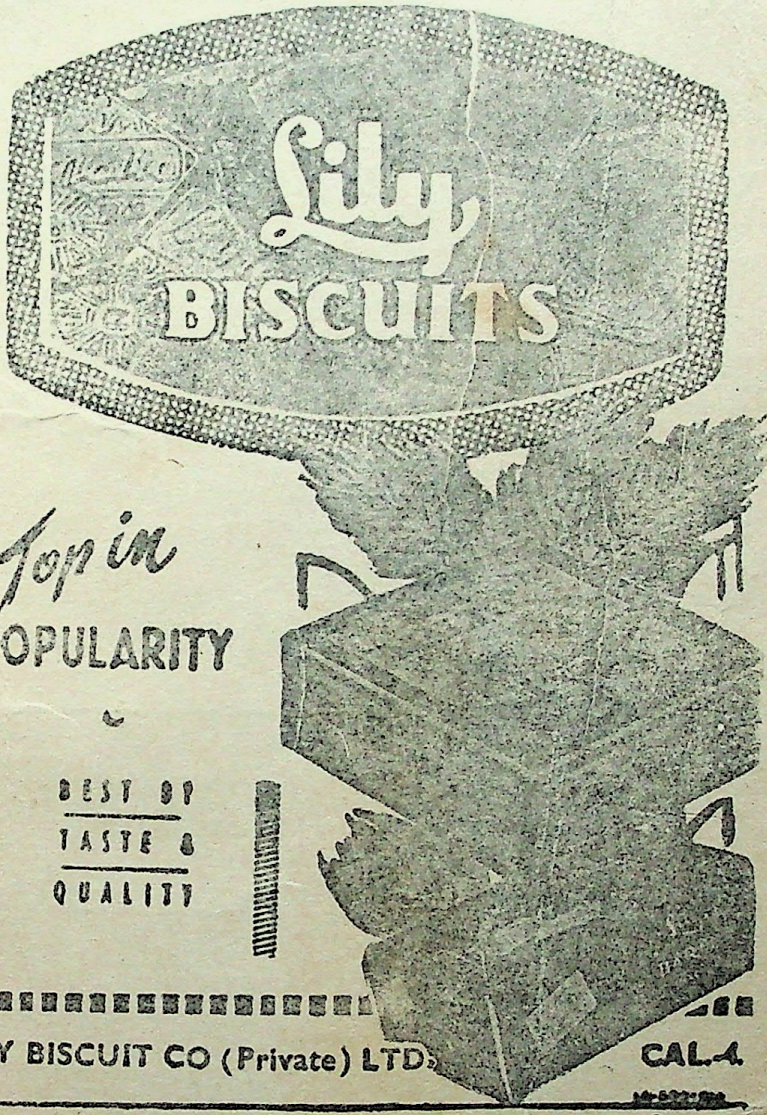

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